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# **1960 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**A SUMMARY REPORT**

**FOREIGN AGRICULTURAL SERVICE  
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE**

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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

A Special Short Course, T.C. #11

S U M M A R Y   R E P O R T

Sponsored Jointly by

The International Cooperation Administration,  
U. S. Department of Agriculture, and  
University of Wisconsin

June 20 - July 15, 1960

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Foreign Agricultural Service  
U. S. Department of Agriculture  
Washington 25, D. C.  
February 1961



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## PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

A Special Short Course, T.C. #11

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD . . . . .	1
LIST OF PARTICIPANTS . . . . .	3
PROGRAM LEADERS . . . . .	4
PHASE I - UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN . . . . .	5

## LECTURES:

I	Concept of Public Administration	J. W. Ryan	7
II	Public Administration and Agriculture	F. A. Clarenbach	7
III	Organization: Theory and Practice	H. C. Hart	9
IV	Centralization and Decentralization	D. N. McDowell	11
V	Management Aspects of Fiscal Administration	C. Penniman	12
VI	Management Aspects of Personnel Administration	C. Penniman	14
VII	Communication, Coordination, and Control	F. P. Zeidler	16
VIII	Objectives, Policies, and Planning	K. H. Parsons	18
IX	Leadership and Supervision	C. W. Anderson	20
X	Decision Making	G. B. Strother	22
XI	Research and Administrative Leadership	R. C. Clark	24
XII	Competition and Survival	J. L. McCamy	26

## SEMINARS:

28

Problems in Personnel Administration	)	
Problems in Policy Making	)	
Problems of Administrative Communications:		Short Course
Problems of Coordination and Control	:	Participants
Problems in Leadership and Supervision	)	
Problems of Decision Making	)	

## CASE STUDIES:

32

PHASE II - U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE . . . . . 33

LECTURES:

I	Critical Role of Public Administration In a Changing Society	R. B. Tootell	35
II	Fundamentals of Administration	H. G. Herrell	37
III	Organization of the USDA	J. P. Loftus	39
IV	Effective Use of Personnel	E. C. Betts, Jr.	41
V	Main Steps in Planning and Evaluation	J. N. Raudabaugh	43
VI	Experiences in Group Development of Agricultural Programs	( J. N. Raudabaugh Panel : T. L. Ayers	45
VII	Administrative Leadership	( B. D. Joy C. E. Wylie	48
VIII	The Supervisor's Role	W. R. Van Dersal	50
IX	Communications Process	( H. R. Taylor Panel : J. N. Raudabaugh	52
X	Decision Making	( B. M. Phifer J. P. Loftus	54
XI	The Art of Decision Making	M. H. Holliday, Jr.	56
XII	Management Controls	J. C. Cooper, Jr.	58
XIII	Follow-Up	E. N. Fulker	60

EVALUATION . . . . . 62

REFERENCES . . . . . 63

EXCERPTS . . . . . 66



## FOREWORD

### A. Background

This special short course was developed to help agricultural administrators of foreign governments increase their capacities for effective administration. It was a course for administrators, offering them an opportunity to study the sound management of men, money, and materials in agricultural development in their home country. The visiting officials selected for participation were ones of substantial administrative responsibility.

### B. Objectives of the Course\*

#### 1. Overall Objective

To develop an appreciation of the value and importance of public administration in agricultural development.

The focus was on the job of the administrator -- demands and requirements, his role in decision-making and policy formation, and on ways to improve administrative performance.

To accomplish these objectives the program was divided into two phases.

#### 2. Objective of First Phase -- University of Wisconsin

To orient participants to the basic nature of public administration, its principal ideas and practices.

This involved the objective analysis of the components of administrative practice (theory and principles in public administration).

#### 3. Objective of Second Phase -- U. S. Department of Agriculture

To review and discuss the role of responsible administrative leadership in carrying out agricultural programs and in using effective management tools to achieve goals with emphasis on how to put resources together to carry out agricultural development.

In this phase the course moved from the basic nature of public administration to the application of ideas and practices.

### C. Mechanics of the Course

#### 1. Lectures

Presentations by lecturers on major subject-matter areas was a major feature. The "problem-oriented" approach with some solutions on how problems might be met was used. Illustrations of the application of administrative practices were given. The application to his own environment was left to each of the participants.

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\* For a more complete description, see PROGRAM AND ITINERARY of "Public Administration in Agricultural Development," A Special Short Course, T.C. #11.

## 2. Case Studies

Case problems were used to paint a real picture of the principles of administration presented.

Cases were developed from:

1. Public Administration and Policy Development--A Case Book, by Harold Stein; Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York.
2. The Inter-University Case Program.
3. The Vietnamese Administration Case Book.

## 3. Discussion

Briefs and problem exercises were prepared to bring out major points in the lectures. Opportunity was provided for questions or comments in order to synthesize (to compare with what was said previously).

## 4. Seminars

Each participant presented a commentary out of his own experience, identified with a specific phase of administration. The lecturers were used as discussion leaders in the seminars in their subject-matter areas. This provided continuity in the course.

## 5. Consultation

Time was set aside for consultation with staff members or other individuals regarding specific problems or subjects.

## 6. Study and Library

A list of reference books and articles was supplied for supplementary reading.

## 7. Evaluation

Evaluation was a continuous process with a formal evaluation at the end of Phase I of the course and at the conclusion. This provided an opportunity to adjust to particular needs.

## D. Summary Report

This report is a summary of the course. It was prepared as a reference manual for the participants in the follow-up phase in their home countries. It is hoped that this report will be useful to participants in at least three ways: (1) to make recommendations to higher authorities; (2) to institute administrative changes in work under the control of the participants; and (3) to use in holding workshops, conferences, or short courses in their home countries.

# LIST OF PARTICIPANTS \*

Ruben Dario Arosemena  
Apartado 356  
Panama, R. de Panama

Mauricio Báez  
Avenida Los Samanes No. 24  
La Florida  
Caracas, Venezuela

Manuel E. Castañeda  
3445 Magistrado Torres  
Sta. Mesa  
Manila, Philippines

Nick P. Cournoutos \*\*  
Ministry of Agriculture  
11 Alkibiadou Street  
Athens, Greece

Paulo Parisio Pereira de Melo  
Avenida Guararapes 154 - 9º  
Recife, Brazil

Joseph M. Dukuly  
204 United Nations Drive  
Bushrod Island  
Monrovia, Liberia

In Hwan Kim  
209 Sendun-Dong  
Suwon, Korea

Mohamet Lawan  
Ministry of Agriculture  
Maiduguri, Nigeria

Chukwuemeka Oyolu  
Agricultural Research Station  
Umudike  
Umuahia-Ibeku, Nigeria

Kamala B. Rajbhandary  
School of Agriculture  
P. O. Box 37  
Kathmandu, Nepal

Zukhreddin Y. Shokeh  
Ministry of Agriculture  
Amman-Jordan

Arthur W. C. Teague \*\*  
P. O. Box 143  
Umtali, Southern Rhodesia

Roberto Vitelmo Tezón  
Director Nacional de Minería  
Peru 562  
Buenos Aires, Argentina

Vane Vincent  
Fed'l Dep't Conservation & Ext.  
P. O. Box 8117  
Causeway, Southern Rhodesia



Miss Susan J. Foster,  
Public Administration  
Intern, Conn. College  
for Women, New London,  
Connecticut.

\* See pages 14 through 19 of PROGRAM AND ITINERARY of "Public Administration in Agricultural Development," A Special Short Course, T.C. #11, for personal data and background information on participants.

\*\* Phase I only





#### Technical Leader

Mr. Phillip F. Aylesworth, Program Relationships, Federal Extension Service, also serves as Department-wide liaison between USDA agencies and nat'l rural church leaders. He served 8 years in the immediate office of the Secretary, as Sec. of USDA's Policy and Program Committee, with the Farm Security Admin. (now Farmers Home Admin.), the War Food Admin., and the Prod. and Mktg. Admin. Mr. Aylesworth holds B. S. and M. S. degrees from Purdue Univ. and did additional graduate work at the Univ. of Wisconsin. He is a former staff member of the Agr. Econ. Dep't. at Michigan State Univ.

#### Program Leader (Wisconsin)

Dr. John W. Ryan, Program Dir. at Wisconsin, has been Ass't Prof. of Pol. Sc. with the Bureau of Gov't., Univ. Ext. Div., Univ. of Wis., since 1958. He holds B. A. and M. A. degrees from the Univ. of Utah, and M. A. and Ph. D. degrees from Indiana Univ. From 1953-55, Dr. Ryan was Research Analyst for the State of Kentucky. From 1955-57 he served as Financial and Admin. Analyst in State Gov't. and as Consultant in Thailand for ICA. In 1957-58 he was Ass't Dir., Institute of Training and Business Services in Indiana.



#### Program Specialist

Mr. Ross J. Silkett, a native of Iowa, received his education at Kansas State Univ. and the Univ. of Missouri where he received B. S. and M. S. degrees. He spent 7 years in agricultural development and farm management work before joining USDA in 1935. He worked in the Bureau of Agr. Econ., Farm Credit Admin., and the Prod. and Mktg. Admin., before transferring to the For. Agr. Service. Mr. Silkett served with the U. S. Military Gov't. in Germany in 1947 and with the U. S. Ext. Training Mission in Iran during 1953.

# PHASE ONE

INTRODUCTION  
AND  
ORIENTATION  
TO  
PUBLIC  
ADMINISTRATION

---

UNIVERSITY  
OF  
WISCONSIN



4. Efficiency--ratio of valued output to input; benefits and costs
5. Processes of economizing (socio-political processes)
  - a. Price system--control of and by leaders
  - b. Hierarchy--control by leaders
  - c. Polyarchy--control of leaders
  - d. Bargaining--control among leaders

Public administration includes the following elements:

1. "Internal processes" of agency decision-making:
  - a. Organization--division of labor; structuring of groups of people; relating of groups of people one to another; anatomy of administration.
  - b. Management--techniques and actions to achieve "rational cooperation."
2. "External politics" of agency decision-making:
  - a. Relationships with the chief executive, other executive agencies, the legislature and legislators, clientele, and other pressure groups, political parties, and the courts.
  - b. Two pervasive problems: (1) the problem of survival; (2) the problem of values.

In public administration in agricultural development the major concern is one of planning vs. "the science of muddling through." In planning the concept is one of needing to know the facts and of fitting them into a comprehensive picture.

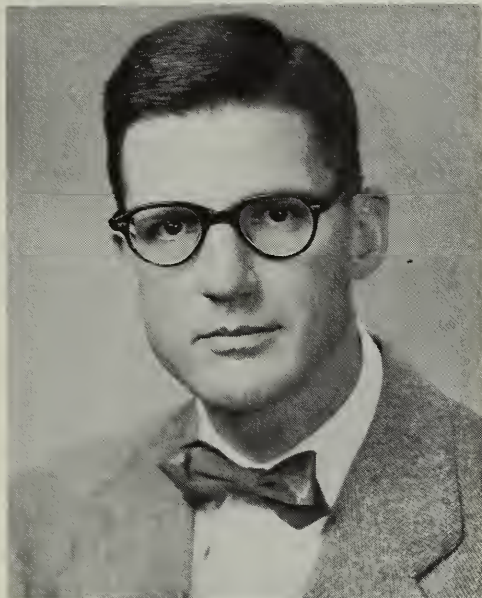
### Discussion

Discussion centered on the place of human relations and effective use of personnel and on the problems of the administrator. Questions raised:

1. Are administrators born or made?
2. What basis should be used for promotion--seniority or ability?
3. Are there some common elements of management which are discernible in all situations, e.g. - military, agriculture, education, welfare, etc? What are some of these common elements? Are managers interchangeable?
4. Is work per se a value in your society? What are the implications of this for the administrator?
5. Are there "principles" of administration? Do the "principles" vary in different cultural contexts?

### III ORGANIZATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

by Henry C. Hart, Prof., Pol. Science



Dr. Hart has been at the Univ. of Wis. since 1950 and is Assoc. Prof. of Pol. Sc. He received his B. S. degree from Vanderbilt Univ. and his Ph. D. degree from the Univ. of Wis. He was associated with TVA for seven years, including the position of specialist in employee training. Prof. Hart recently spent two years on leave in India where he was a Fulbright exchange professor and did research under a grant from the Ford Foundation. His publications include two books--"The Dark Missouri," and "New India's Rivers."

#### Summary

- A. Definition of Organization -- System of relationships by which the efforts of two or more persons combine to achieve a purpose (a large public mission). It is not just a structure or chart but includes maintenance and operation. It helps bring out or limit individual achievement. The purpose of studying organization is to more clearly predict what others will do.
- B. How the Organization is Determined
  - 1. The constitution provides the first element in the context of the organization.
  - 2. Broad public interest or purpose is a determining factor. (Organizations only exist to carry out some purpose.)
    - a. Goals (mission) may be stated authoritatively by legislature or a planning commission. There are usually many sub-goals, composite or multi-purpose goals.
  - 3. Kind of people available to man the organization--kinds of skills, motives, goals, and attitudes of people are important.
    - a. Selection and attitude training makes possible building a group with desired approach and attitude. Possibilities in selection include a cross-section of the country or a specialized group.
- C. Processes of Organization

1. Allocation of tasks to individuals; specialization of labor.
2. Coordination--the part performed by an individual fitted into the organization. This is ordinarily done through authority (relation between two people so one will do the will of the other even though he does not understand or agree). Other means include: committee work, negotiation, precedent, persuasion.
3. Parceling out authority. Organize by time; place; equipment or material handled; purpose; people served (clientele).
4. Supplementary specialization and coordination: One basis of specialization (area) of task may cut across another basis (clientele for example). New specializations occur as new developments arise.
  - a. Methods of organizing
    - (1) Auxiliary control agencies
    - (2) Staff work
    - (3) Line, staff, and area offices

#### D. Dilemma

Dilemma in organization is that in rapidly-developing countries the chief executive must be willing to act boldly but operate under controls designed to keep him from favoring family, cast, or region. One of the solutions is to accept supplementary aids such as staff advisors.

#### E. Organization Change

1. Costs of obsolete organization versus costs of change.
  - a. Control of change
  - b. Internal conflict as the price of change

#### Discussion

1. What are the major steps in making a complete organizational study of the department--the process in setting up an organization?
2. If you are powerless to change your organizational structure, why study it?
3. Is organizational structure really important if there are well qualified people throughout the organization?
4. How do you handle political appointments?
5. How do you develop an effective working relationship between subject matter personnel and the generalist in charge of an agricultural project office?



IV CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION  
by D. N. McDowell, Dir., State Dep't Agr., Wis.



Mr. McDowell was appointed Dir. of the Wis. State Dep't. of Agr. in 1950. Since becoming Dir., Mr. McDowell has served on several Nat'l and State Agr. Committees. He was an active 4-H Club member for eleven years. He was awarded the American Farmer Degree by the Future Farmers' of America, and the 4-H Alumni Recognition Award.

Summary

A. Definition

Centralization--bringing together all administration of a program under a central government or office.

Decentralization--withdrawal from place of centralization and dispersment of functions, with authority.

B. Functions

1. A centralized government should interpret, standardize, coordinate.  
A decentralized government should administer, evaluate, report.

C. Advantages and Disadvantages

1. A centralized government has the advantage of: uniformity; recognition of new ideas and techniques; wider distribution of money; mobility; checks and balances.
2. The disadvantages of centralized government are: more political; less person; red tape; bureaucratic entrenchment; remote from practical problem.

Discussion

Practical aspects and illustrations of the job of the administrator were developed.

V MANAGEMENT ASPECTS OF FISCAL ADMINISTRATION  
by Clara Penniman, Prof. of Pol. Science



Dr. Penniman is an Assoc. Prof. of Pol. Sc. at the Univ. of Wis. She received her B.A. and M.A. from the Univ. of Wis. and her Ph. D. from the Univ. of Minn. in 1954. Miss Penniman has been on the Wis. staff since 1953 and her special fields of interest are state government, public administration, and public finance. She has written several articles on taxation and state government.

Summary

Budgeting--The process by which management requests funds, justifies the necessity for funds, receives funds and audits accounts.

The administrator's role in budgeting: Use fiscal budget techniques to fulfill the goals of his organization; and see his budget as it fits into the larger picture.

In organizing budget affairs, it is important to: (1) show how each activity relates to basic policy; (2) measure the success and failure of past programs; and (3) understand the limits to expenditure ability in order to know where to go and which programs to emphasize. Management must consider alternatives: Do we keep the present level of programs? Do we reduce or eliminate all or particular programs? Do we add new programs? Do we want to use more personnel or more machines? Do we need more of anything? The budgeting process offers management an opportunity to make this kind of review.

Communication is necessary in budget making and the larger the department, the greater the need for good vertical and horizontal communications. Budgeting in personnel matters especially requires good communications. If communications are not good, budgeting can become a threat to personnel. The administrator must see to it that the positive aspects of budgeting are emphasized and make slow and continuous small changes rather than fewer abrupt, sweeping ones.

The object classification and performance budgets are two of the most commonly used of the many budgeting possibilities. The use of the three-level budget is often helpful. This method provides for a listing according to: (a) the minimum funds necessary for accomplishing the goals; (b) the most that can be accomplished if there were no limit to the funds; and (c) a priority list of



these activities. Such a system helps the administrator gain an insight into alternatives and the extent they achieve the basic policies of the organization.

There are disadvantages as well as advantages in object classification and performance budgeting. The latter does not give the legislature the control over allocated funds that it might desire while the former does not make issues clear. Performance budgeting can also become too cumbersome to handle in a large organization.

It must be remembered that although on the surface, budget execution "is the allocation of funds to areas where needed with supervision to avoid waste and corruption," it is in reality a political process which openly reflects or conceals policies at every level of government.

As clarification of budgeting and administration it would be well to look at an example, for instance, tax administration.

The administration must first identify the taxpayers, identify the taxable income, and then collect the taxes due. This may involve sending out tax forms, comparing and checking taxable incomes and getting estimates of the size of the population, national income and how much of the latter goes for rent, utilities, investment, etc. All these are goals and the administrator can achieve only a percentage of success. Therefore, he must decide how to improve the efficiency of the operations. It might be by adding something new or making changes. When he has decided on his needs, he can present a budget and justify it on a performance basis.

### Discussion

1. What can you do - and what should you do to fight for an increase in your department budget?
2. How can you coordinate program and work data with financial record keeping to produce more meaningful financial information?
3. A public agency budget is many things to many people. What do you think each of the following is looking for in a budget?
  - a. general citizen groups, i.e. the "taxpayer"
  - b. legislators
  - c. executive chief
  - d. administrative agency head

VI MANAGEMENT ASPECTS OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION  
by Clara Penniman, Prof. of Pol. Science

Summary

A. Background

Cultural impact has always played a decisive role in personnel administration and can be well exemplified in United States history. In this country's early years the government subscribed to a noblesse oblige philosophy in that administrative personnel were drawn from the upper class and a great deal of emphasis was placed on individualism. In the middle period of American history there grew up a reaction to this philosophy until, under Jacksonian Democratic philosophy, everyone had a right and an obligation to serve in government. Through the use of this idea, however, individualism was lost and a "machine" interchange replaced it. At the present, government service in this country has been freed from class distinction and acceptance is now on a basis of ability, merit and talents. There has been a noticeable return to individualism, until today the U. S. administrative bureaucracy is more representative of all areas of U. S. population than is Congress. As U. S. culture has changed and grown, so has the administrative system.

B. Organization

In personnel organization there is usually a central and a department personnel office. The central office will exist regardless of whether or not the patronage or merit system is used because under the former system, it acts as a clearing office and under the latter, determines recruitment, examinations, and salaries. In the United States there has been an attempt on the national level to transfer duties of the central office to the department offices leaving the central office free to make general policy and personnel audits. TVA in this country has been a leader in experimenting in personnel work and its decentralization.

C. Operation

Management-personnel relations are created or destroyed by the hand of the administrator. The department manager seeks in an employee the objective qualities of good education, experience and intelligence as well as the subjective characteristics of loyalty, good judgment, and imagination. But faced with a formal policy of government, it is in the administrator's exercise of human relations that the success or failure of those policies lie. And, regardless of the policy or department, a man can be known as a good or bad employer.

The department head, therefore, should be primarily concerned with recruitment. The number of applications from which he has to choose depends very much on the prestige position of government service in the society. When prestige is low, a serious problem is created because government needs the best and most able men and has difficulty in attracting them. Inadequate

recruitment will limit the department and lower government prestige even more. The pay scale, of course, has a great deal of influence on the success of government recruitment. In the U. S. there exists a discrepancy which hinders efficient government to a certain extent because, although the government pay scale compares favorably with that of the private sector at the lower levels of service, it compares less favorably at the top levels and thus fewer "best" people are attracted to the high administrative positions. Even if they have come up through the ranks, they are often drawn off by the private sector.

It is well for the manager to keep in mind that employees are people with motives and desires and are not just machines. The organization and the individual must adapt to one another; the effort should not come from one side only. The manager will find that recognition of the employee's right to differ can be of value in meeting change and will be more successful in the long run. People will work better if they feel a part of the decision making process as it applies to those persons directly affected.

### Discussion

1. Why do people work for government? What does this information mean to you as an administrator?
2. How many people do you believe one person can supervise effectively?
3. Do you recognize any major disadvantages in a civil service system? How can you offset them?
4. What is a generalist? What is a specialist? How do you detect administrative talents in specialists; how do you develop such talents?
5. Should a specialist be given administrative responsibilities in his agency? What are the problems involved?



VII COMMUNICATION, COORDINATION, AND CONTROL  
by Frank P. Zeidler, Ford Foundation Grantee



Mr. Zeidler served three four-year terms as mayor of Milwaukee. He actively promoted better city planning, housing, traffic improvements, and cultural projects. He has received several awards for distinguished civic service--Junior Chamber of Commerce award as one of the ten outstanding young American men in 1948; Good Government Award in 1956, and an award for outstanding work in civil defense. Mayor Zeidler received training at the Wis., Chicago, and Marquette Universities. He was awarded an Honorary Degree of Doctor of Laws by the Univ. of Wis.

Summary

A. Functions of the Executive

1. Determine main lines of administrative policy.
2. Issue necessary orders and communications.
3. Coordinate--divide up into specific groups.
4. Control financial aspects.
5. Supervise what personnel is going to do--aid subordinate administrators.
6. Public relations--direct relationships within organization and outside organizations.

B. What Communications Require

1. Knowledge of subject
2. Knowledge of what is to be done (objectives)
3. Stream of information--upward and downward
4. Knowledge of leaders
5. Means of communication--selection of media most suitable to the occasion.

C. Steps in Communications

1. Vary to meet requirements--personal contact; staff meetings; phone calls, letters, memoranda.
2. Use appropriate media, suitable for event.
3. Be clear and concise--not ambiguous.
4. Provide for return route.
5. Modify policy in light of ~~exp~~ experience.

D. Communications for Community Development

1. People are reached through: demonstration of a process, speech, writings, assemblies, guides, personal conference.

E. Coordination

1. Goal--Direction of everyone's efforts toward objective which can be obtained with ease and without distress.

2. Method:

- a. Co-determination of objective and program
- b. Well thought out and practical objective capable of attainment
- c. Effective communications
- d. Formal organization structure with workable span of control and unity of command

F. Control -- This is largely a problem of keeping the administration informed.

1. Internal means:

- a. Morale building activities
- b. Knowledge of plant and problem
- c. Knowledge of personal circumstances of people
- d. Sympathetic understanding
- e. Special investigation--on the spot
- f. Review of correspondence
- g. Machinery (fiscal accounting)
- h. Adequate equipment

2. External means:

- a. Legislation
- b. Development of understanding of program

Discussion

1. What is the most effective means of communication?
2. How do you handle a situation where the person disagrees with the order?
3. What are the special problems of the elected vs. the appointed executive?
4. What is the chief barrier to effective communications in your situation?
5. What particular status factor complicates your communications?
6. What potential problems and advantages appear to be developing from technological advances in communication?
7. What is the relative importance of formal and informal communications?



VIII ADMINISTRATIVE PLANNING FOR POLICY ADMINISTRATION  
by K. H. Parsons, Univ. of Wis.



Dr. Parsons has been on the Univ. of Wis. staff since 1937 and is Prof. of Agr. Econ. He received his Ph. D. degree from the Univ. of Wis. Prior to coming to Wis. he served with the Federal Farm Board, the Farm Credit Admin., and the Resettlement Admin. Other assignments include his work as a consultant: FAO in 1947; ECA in Paris 1949 - 50; ICA consultant on Land Policy 1952; and on Land Problems in the Middle East and Asia 1954 - 58; Ford Foundation in the Middle East 1958 - 59. His fields of interest are Agr. Policies and Econ. Development.

Summary

It is necessary to establish some basic reference points for leading, directing, or measuring development. Both planning and policy administration require a substantial accumulation of factual information about a country, as well as analytical interpretation of the available information. Two guides as to the place of agricultural development in the national development are especially important:

1. The amount of total investment needed to raise per capita incomes with growing population; and
2. The changing balance between agriculture and industry.

A. The Structure of Agricultural Policy

The administration process of policy formation and administration is shaped necessarily by the general political philosophy implicit in national policy as well as by the major circumstances toward which agricultural policies are directed. Agricultural policies may be classified according to the ways in which the administrative process impinges upon the agricultural economy.

1. Public administration by reliance upon general rules of procedure
  - a. Land ownership--private property
  - b. The development of (fair) market relations, through rules defining the terms upon which buyers and sellers must deal with each other.
  - c. Taxation of agriculture according to generally established criteria.

2. The direct provision of public services by public agencies
  - a. Public facilities--highways, railways, post, telegraph, harbor facilities
  - b. Education, including agricultural extension
  - c. Research, especially in agriculture, health, and education
3. Publicly sponsored and administered services to agriculture which are supplementary to, and substitutable for services partially available from the private trade
  - a. Agricultural credit: It has been found everywhere that special credit systems have to be devised for agriculture. Furthermore, when the extension of credit is incorporated into the precarious subsistence-survival struggle of peasant cultivators, a new kind of debt servitude arises, against which modern governments may likely take precautionary counter measures.
  - b. Cooperatives: The publicly-sponsored cooperative associations have characteristically been formed to provide better market and credit alternatives to farmers, partly through the control of the marketing of farm products at least through the wholesale marketing stage.
4. Public programs of commodity price supports and "welfare" minima
  - a. The prices of farm products are "naturally" notoriously unstable, in all countries, due to variations in production, inelastic demands, etc. Governments may come under great pressure in the early stages of economic development to stabilize prices.
  - b. There are tremendous pressures in "underdeveloped" countries for the government to undertake welfare programs. They are of two kinds:
    - (1) Those involving direct public expenditures, as for old-age pensions, school feeding, etc. and;
    - (2) Those which would stipulate standards of performance, as minimum wages, and maximum rents.

B. Policies for the Reforming or Re-structuring of Agriculture

1. Difficulties in modernizing an agrarian economy
  - a. Great pressure for reform
  - b. Arriving at rate of compensation for acquired property
2. In terms of administrative planning and policy programming, two points merit the most careful consideration:
  - a. The recognition of the "going concern" character of a farm.
  - b. A better understanding of the natural avenues of adjustment in a traditional society and economy.

IX LEADERSHIP AND SUPERVISION  
by Charles W. Anderson, Prof. of Pol. Science



Dr. Anderson is Ass't. Prof. of Pol. Sc. at the Univ. of Wis. His training was received at Grinnell College, Johns Hopkins Univ. and a Ph. D. degree at the Univ. of Wis. His specialties are Latin American Policies, Public Admin., international relations, and American government.

Summary

Leadership is at once unique and commonplace. It is human activity surrounded by mystery and equated with greatness. Yet leadership is part of every situation in which a group is gathered together for the achievement of a purpose.

Social scientists, in studying leadership, have followed two lines of inquiry. They have sought for the "traits" or "qualities" possessed by the leader and they have attempted to examine the types of "situations" from which various kinds of leaders emerge.

We may call the manner in which leaders emerge out of a particular situation the "informal" method of leadership selection. This is distinct from the type of superior-subordinate relations that is found in administration. Informal leadership is the product of the group and its goals and purposes are dependent on the members of the group. In administration, the group becomes an "organization" or "institution" with predetermined goals and purposes. In an organization, the superior is preselected and specified without reference to the group situation. Leadership in the organization becomes authority and the techniques by which authority is used to achieve the purposes of the organization is management.

Whenever an organization exists, however, the conditions are present from which "informal" leadership may emerge. Administration becomes creative and dynamic when leadership accompanies management in the achievement of the goals and purposes of the organization.

Three types of administrative leaders may be distinguished. Some administrators lead through the dynamic use of authority. Others may stress the achievement of informal leadership within the organization. However, it is



also possible for the administrator to synthesize the techniques of authority and informal leadership in achieving the purposes of the organization.

Democracy implies that leaders are not born but made. This is one reason why we are now so interested in finding out what leadership really is.

When selecting his leadership methods, a man should keep in mind the culture, situation and time of the area in which he is working. It could be that authoritarian leadership (benevolent dictatorship) might be more effective in a newly developing country where cultural clashes exist. Yet even so, it might be useless if the desire of the people is for a more democratic pattern.

There is perhaps no one right way to lead, and leadership is a progress of consensus and common purpose, but there is a best way to lead and a good leader is one who can find that best way.

### Discussion

1. Delegation of authority is important to leadership. How do you judge if an executive is delegating effectively and appropriately?
2. Executives are reluctant to delegate authority. Why? What are the effects of no delegation? What can you do about it?
3. Does leadership rest on command? On persuasion? On both?
4. What is the relevance, if any, of democracy to administrative leadership? What special factors in your own administrative environment are related to this problem?
5. It has been said that success in leadership and supervision requires an understanding of human wants and needs. Do you agree? Does this have special implications in your country?

X DECISION MAKING  
by George Strother, Prof. School of Commerce



Dr. Strother is Assoc. Prof. of Commerce & the Nat'l Agr. Ext. Center for Advanced Study. He holds A. B. and M. A. degrees from the Univ. of Mo., and a Ph. D. degree from Indiana Univ. His experience includes: Head of the Counseling Bureau, Univ. of Mo.; Psychology Dep't., Univ. of Minn.; and academic Vice Pres. and Dean, Northland College, Ashland, Wis. He has published many articles in the field of psychology and personnel.

Summary

Decision--the making of a choice between two or more courses of action in an "uncertainty situation". Ability to make decisions--gift or achievement?

Although there are some men who have a gift for making immediate correct decisions of action under such circumstances, the most important consideration is the method of decision-making for the ordinary administrator, who is a part of an organizational system. It is wise for such a man to set up applicable decision making formulas and rules which are designed out of human experience in order to reduce the margin of error in the choice. These rules must not be so inflexible that they become useless due to the conflict between order and innovation which is common to all societies. In a changing world, such inflexibility will make resolution of a problem extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Three problems:

1. Do we always know when an uncertain situation actually exists?
2. Are we aware of all possible courses of action?
3. Expectancy: How, amidst variety of facts, feelings, and choices do we build up sufficient certainty so that decision will be made and action taken?
  - a. Perception: we select facts
  - b. Assumptions: we proceed as if certain things were true
  - c. Persistence forecasting: based on repeated experience
  - d. Systematization: abstraction organization

Many "uncertainty situations" arise out of conflict and are the motivations for making decisions. Such conflict can arise out of the disruption of the



expected relationship between a person and his environment or can present themselves as balances between favorable or unfavorable choices of action. In dealing with any resolution of conflict the decision maker should always be conscious of the fact that in making a choice, his present action and the present action of those to whom he issues directives are directed toward and will affect future events. This means that his choice must be carefully made.

There are three basic kinds of decisions--value decisions, puzzle decisions, and difficulty decisions. It is this latter kind that the administrator is usually most concerned.

Value decisions are based on cultural traditions and personal experience. Puzzle decisions are those for which there is a correct answer and precision techniques available. The difficulty decision is far more complex. It is like a puzzle for which we have no precision techniques to work out the solution, but for which we know there is a best answer.

In order for an administrator to make a decision he must seek agreement on needs and goals. This done, he should then accumulate necessary information on the problem but at the same time should guard against over-intellectualizing. This means that he should seek a balance between the need for information and facts and the need for making a timely decision. The administrator must make judgments about and evaluations of the courses of action and then decide in the action phase who is going to do what, and when.

Decision making can be applied in three major areas: (1) on the operational level in such matters as work simplification; (2) in operating programs as in creative decision making, and (3) in policy planning through estimating possible courses and conditions by use of a balance sheet technique. At all times, policy planning can be improved by increased development of technique.

### Discussion

1. What is authority? What are the bases of authority which you draw upon to get your subordinates to do as you wish?
2. What do you understand to be the relationships of rational choice to administrative decision-making?
  - a. Is rational choice always possible?
  - b. Is rational choice always preferable?
3. How are policies and decisions related? If you disagree with a policy, is your ability to make decisions impaired?

XI RESEARCH AND ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP  
by Robert C. Clark, Dir., Nat'l Agr. Ext. Center



Dr. Clark has been director of the Nat'l Agr. Ext. Center for Advanced Study since 1955. Prior to that he was ass't. ext. dir. in charge of 4-H Club work in Wis. Dr. Clark has a background in agr. ext. work in Ohio, Iowa, New York, and Wis. He grew up on a farm near Fredericktown, Ohio, was a 4-H Club member and state president of FFA, and was awarded an American Farmer degree in 1933. He earned B. S. and M. S. degrees at Ohio State and a Ph. D. at Iowa State Univ.

Summary

A. Kinds of Problems of Administrative Leadership

Research is being conducted today to discover what leadership is, who leaders are, characteristics of leaders, what the patterns of leadership are; and especially to discover the best means of selecting and training leaders.

B. What is Leadership?

Leadership is a social-educational process which will vary in different circumstances but can be described generally as the achieving of goals and objectives of the leader or the group, or both. Leadership presupposes a group and followers, and is a mutual educational process involving related differences channelled into cooperation toward achieving goals. A good leader, therefore, must also know when to be a follower in achieving goals, thereby, in the long run, retaining his leadership.

C. Characteristics of Administrative Leadership

Everyone has potential leadership ability but some men possess it to a greater degree than do others. The ability to be a leader involves certain qualities that enable him to be more effective as a leader. Research has arrived at nine characteristics or qualities of leadership. The possessor of leadership qualities has: (1) a sense of purpose and direction; (2) enthusiasm in accomplishing tasks and pride in doing a job well; (3) friendliness, sincerity; (4) integrity; (5) technical mastery, recognizing his own limitations, delegates duties to those who can do them best; (6)

intelligence--is able to appraise a situation readily seeing it in its total setting of past and present--coupled with imagination and sense of humor; (7) teaching skill; (8) faith in the judgment and integrity of his subordinates; and, (9) great physical and nervous energy and drive.

#### D. Patterns of Leadership

There are four major patterns of leadership; Autocratic, Bureaucratic, Democratic, Laissez-faire. In the autocratic pattern, power is the basis of authority, and power is the authority to apply sanctions. The bureaucratic pattern emphasizes efficiency and compliance with rules, regulations, and laws. The bureaucratic pattern is influenced by the position of the individual in the organizational structure as well as his length of service during which he has developed familiarity with rules and regulations and how they can be modified without fear of reprimand. The democratic pattern places emphasis on integrity, human dignity, self-respect and well-being of individuals. This pattern can be influenced by the knowledge of people; the ability to communicate "know-how" to participants, the adaption of the decision making pattern to the situation at hand, and the opportunity for individuals to demonstrate their abilities, talents, imagination, and flexibility in all areas. The laissez-faire pattern creates an environment in which individuals can act autonomously without relation to a superior. The leader in this case lets the group do what they want, when they want, how they want. Although situation, cultural and legal factors have strong bearing on these patterns, it can be said generally that in the autocratic pattern no one has a role except as the leader decides it should be. Roles are assigned impersonally by a standardized system in a bureaucratic pattern. In the democratic pattern, roles are assigned according to individual qualifications. In the laissez-faire pattern the individuals choose their own roles.

#### E. Functions of Administration

Regardless of the pattern, there are common major functions that society expects of leaders. They should be able to Plan, then Organize, Staff, Direct, COordinate, Report and Budget (POSDCORB). And to this list should be added the ability to establish good relationships within and among agencies, and the ability to evaluate the work of the organization.

#### Discussion

1. What should an administrator do who disagrees with a policy that is imposed on him or believes that a change in policy is desired?
2. Which of the characteristics of the leader are most important?
3. Are these values from research in administration comparable to those from research in technical fields?
4. Are those who control research in a power position?



XII COMPETITION AND SURVIVAL  
by James McCamy, Prof. of Pol. Science



Dr. McCamy has been professor of Pol. Sc. at the Univ. of Wis. since 1947. He holds A. B. and M. A. degrees from the Univ. of Texas and a Ph. D. degree from the Univ. of Chicago. He served on the faculty of Bennington College, Vt., from 1934 - 42. He served as ass't. to secretaries of Agr. Henry Wallace and Claude R. Wickard. Later he was director of the Bureau of Areas, Foreign Econ. Admin., and deputy dir. of the Office of Int. Trade, U. S. Dep't of Commerce. His special fields of study are public admin. and U. S. Foreign Policy.

Summary

We try to compete against and survive in situations where possible operating changes are being considered which would tend to down-grade the significance of our own personal contribution and also which would limit the jurisdiction of the institution with which we are affiliated.

These threats come from other departments, other individuals in our own department, changes in administrative environment, from members of the legislature who have "weight", from legislation that reflects a public feeling, e.g., for economy and from political chiefs.

To survive against the above-mentioned threats and others which may be present there are ten rules to survival which can be implimented to meet any and all threats. They are:

1. Get started first, e.g., start one project before others discover a change in purpose and before another agency can claim the work.
2. Keep quiet about your intentions initially and confide in only a few members of your own organization, those whom you can trust.
3. Set up diversionary activities.
4. Tell the boss (when you think it necessary) what you are doing. Don't ask him for permission or for help in solving a problem. Take him the solution for his information or approval.

5. When dealing with the legislature always stress your accomplishments and ask for appropriations only in connection with results.
6. You must be better informed than anyone else. A man shouldn't attempt to go beyond the scope of his own field in the organization.
7. Always think progressively. Think of what to do next and not to keep on doing what we are doing at present.
8. Always think of the public interest. In the final analysis an individual or agency can only be judged by the service rendered to the public.
9. Take advantage of lulls to trim your dead limbs: then go in a new direction as a result of the shedding of old superfluous activities and people. Take the opportunities to put economies into practice.
10. Above all, don't worry about what others are doing, but content yourself with doing a better, more efficient job--faster than they do.

#### Discussion

1. Do you see any advantages from jurisdictional competition in government?
2. What is meant by "policy by default"?

## S E M I N A R S

During the second week of the Short Course, seminars were conducted by the participants on topics discussed by the speakers of the previous week. Each participant set forward a problem case or discussed a selected topic drawing examples from his experience in his own country. The seminar topics included: "Problems of Personnel in Administration," "Problems of Policy Making," "Problems of Communication," "Problems of Coordination and Control," "Problems of Leadership and Supervision," and "Problems of Decision Making." Many questions and problems were presented for which possible solutions were suggested.

### Summary

1. Problem: How to decrease the size of the government force of public employees so that the government not serve as a reservoir for persons otherwise unemployed, thus draining the resources of the country and hindering the development program? Can the number of government employees be cut to remedy the cumbersome overstaffing of agencies and departments (some of whose employees are incompetent) without losing the competent and skilled workers and without making government service unattractive to desirable potential recruits?  
Solution: This problem is being handled in Argentina by discontinuing pay raises in some overstaffed areas in hopes that the salaries offered in the private sector of the economy will draw off unnecessary employees. This, however, is no guarantee against losing competent personnel. Strict qualification requirements for new recruits was another suggested solution for limiting the size of staffs. Some agencies of government were recognized as being more essential and given higher priority. Private industry is being stimulated by government to provide additional resources and job opportunities.
2. Problem: Meeting the goal for more effective and efficient performance of personnel. How can an organization deal with incompetence in some of its members when it is almost impossible to dismiss a worker on the basis of incompetence once he has served out his probationary period? This problem is particularly acute in Rhodesia and Nyasaland where the number of trained workers in conservation and extension is limited at present and the needs of the country demand an ever increasing staff.  
Solution: It was suggested that there might be more stringent requirements made of personnel during the probationary period and that more dismissals could be made during that time if standards were not met. A way might also be found to create a more meaningful relationship between seniority rights and the merit system.
3. Problem: Changing the structure of the Department of Agriculture to provide for carrying out extension work with rural people. How can the results of research as developed by the experiment station's staff be carried to farmers without using research workers out in the field?  
Solution: The experiment station is one hundred twenty-five miles away from the central government headquarters. There is need to train the extension aides by either bringing them to the station or by scheduling workshops or conferences for the aides with the research staff as the leaders.



It was agreed that it would be very wasteful of time of the research men and expensive to put them in the field; rather they should be put in a position to teach.

4. Problem: Several different agencies working on land reform are controlled by different departments of the government. This creates confusion and retards progress. In the making of policy in the redistribution of land, in the Philippines for example, how can one best deal with the problems created by duplication and conflict of efforts among different agencies and what is actually the best means of distributing the land?  
Solution: Suggestions were made that under such circumstances, every attempt should be made to coordinate the activities of the various agencies involved so that when the Land Tenure Administration allocates land, it can be assured that the extension agents in the Department of Agriculture will work with the new land holders to improve their farm methods and use the land profitably. There may be occasions when it is necessary to run counter to the powers of other agencies, but such action can be justified if it remains within the framework of the general policy. Concerning the actual allocation, it was suggested that although there is no way to decide on proper division of land once and for all, it is important that flexibility in distribution be maintained in order that changes can be made to meet the demands of growing population and the migration of rural peoples within rural areas or into urban centers.
5. Problem: Dilemmas in policy formulation and program execution. What kind of administrative system works best in a newly developing and rapidly changing country?  
Solution: It was suggested that policies often do not vary as much as the methods used to fulfill them. Because tradition dies hard and people are slow to change, it might be well in some cases for administration to act aggressively in bringing about change, knowing that once innovations have been implemented their value will be recognized and they will be accepted. The emphasis on considerations in such cases, therefore, should be placed on the policy itself. In looking at the means of policy implementation, attention should be focused on whether a program has outlined its usefulness or is adjusted to the current situation.
6. Problem: Communications to field staff and to farmers. What methods of communication can be used in areas where illiteracy is high, roads and transportation are inadequate and the people speak many different languages?  
Solution: An increase in field staff would reduce the size of the area and the number of people for whom the Village Level Worker would be responsible and thereby facilitate communication. Two-way radios connecting the field staff with the more central offices might help overcome the barriers that road and transportation inadequacies create. The use of airplanes was also suggested.
7. Problem: Internal communications both up and down the administrative scale. How can an administrator best communicate with his superiors in order to convince them of the need for more funds and of a loosening of the fiscal control by which it is presently bound? This problem is exemplified in the present situation of the National Institute of Agriculture of the Republic of Panama.

Solution: Change in the organizational structure may be necessary for the effective communications, coordination, and control. Personal contact and discussion is often helpful as well as showing the progress of the organization and what could have been done if more funds had been made available. There has been a recent move toward the study of public administration in order to get a better understanding of the aspects of administration, including budgeting.

8. Problem: Getting understanding and support for the work of the organization. How can the administrator get the people to identify the good work being done with the department (School of Agriculture in Nepal for example)?

Solution: Structural changes in the organization were suggested so that the components of the organization--School of Agriculture (teaching), research, and extension can be more readily identified as a whole rather than separate entities. More effective communications to and from the Village Development Worker are essential.

9. Problem: Coordination of budget and program. How can shortcomings to effective program operation resulting from tight fiscal control by a central controller be overcome?

Solution: Organized planning; the development of a carefully thought-through program; and budget justification to help overcome such tendencies in fiscal control as: keeping the same relationships of funds allotted between departments each year, failing to take into account differences in importance of various programs, and tendency to favor programs or pet projects.

10. Problem: Coordination is the amalgamation of constituent areas of interest to achieve an end. Problems arise from conflicting interests, approaches, methods, and personalities. How best can such coordination be realized?

Solution: The means of control include:

- a. Keep watch over the organization and make corrections whenever necessary. The pyramid of control is most important and when one man tries to do too much, coordination collapses. The individual should recognize his limitations.
- b. Delegate authority and delegate it to a person and not necessarily to a post. There should be a high personal element involved. Authority, however, should be delegated with responsibility, for one is ineffective without the other.
- c. Avoid short circuiting. It breaks the chain of command and of coordination.
- d. Maintain a good training program because it is a tool for coordination. Training is a continuous process and should be followed up.
- e. Communications--use all tools to disseminate information. Maintain committees on high levels but beware that they do not become a tool to avoid decision-making.
- f. Evaluate progress.

11. Problem: Divided leadership between the administrative and technical people.



How can the administrator retain leadership with the technical staff in contacts with higher authorities and in carrying out programs?

Solution: Stimulate technical experts by giving them an opportunity to discuss problems at the top level. The organizational structure should provide for the same kind of subject-matter breakdown in the regional office as in the national office. Mutual respect and understanding is important. Clashes tend to arise when the administrator tends to override the technician. At the same time the technician must understand policy.

12. Problem: How do you get helpers in adoption of agricultural policy? What is the best way to find leaders to disseminate extension information.

Solution: Transmit ideas by teaching and persuasion, not by regulations. The best supervisors are the best teachers and helpers. The selection of leaders vary greatly by the job to be done. Select leaders to represent all interests in the community. Understanding of the program is essential. Work with existing organizations, institutions, agencies, business groups, cooperatives, farm organizations, clubs, and churches.

13. Problem: Division of responsibility between the agricultural colleges and the National Institute of Agriculture. The agricultural college has able personnel at its disposal while more trained research and extension personnel are needed by the Institute. The College has power at the expense of the field service of the Institute. How do you correct the lack of coordination and cooperation between the Agricultural College and the Institute?

Solution: Impress upon the Ministry of Agriculture or the National Institute the need for close working relationships between the bureaus of the department. Establish a dissemination service of bulletins, films, and etc. Have technical and research workers prepare material for use by farmers. Provide for library facilities for the field service of the Institute. Secure informal coordination by having personnel from the Institute and the College office together.

14. Problem: Increasing the effectiveness of the Extension Service. How can the Ministry of Agriculture be enabled to utilize the Extension Service as a channel to people for all programs of the Ministry of Agriculture?

Solution: The first step is to insure that the many departments of the Ministry work closely together to bring about improvements in the development program. The Extension Service is parallel with the other sections in the Agricultural Department of the Ministry; yet it is the channel through which all programs reach farm people. Agreement on objectives and assignment of priorities is thus necessary. With agreement at top administrative level, selection and training of leaders as suggested under No. 12 was proposed.



## CASE STUDIES

### University of Wisconsin

Public Administration and Policy Development--A Case Book. Harold Stein;  
Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York.

The Battle of Blue Earth County  
The Glavis-Ballinger Dispute  
The Regional Director and the Press  
Self Insurance in the Treasury  
Indonesian Assignment

### The Inter-University Case Program

The New York City Health Centers  
The Displaced Career Employee Program  
Michigan Athletic Awards Rule

### The Vietnamese Case Book

Administrative Planning for the Cai San Resettlement Project  
The Decision to Introduce Mechanical Accounting to the Nat'l Budget  
Technicians Dilemma: The Kenaf Fiber Case

### Department of Agriculture

Farmers of the World. Columbia University Press, New York

The Village Pump

The Incident Process. Bureau of Nat'l Affairs, Inc., 1958. Used by special  
permission by the copyright owners.

The Showdown

# PHASE TWO

APPLICATION  
OF  
PUBLIC  
ADMINISTRATION

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U. S.  
DEPARTMENT  
OF  
AGRICULTURE



# U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

l. to r. standing: Z. Shokeh, R. Tezon, E. Fulker,\* R. Arosemena, J. Raudabaugh,\* P. de Melo,  
W. Harvey,\* M. Baez, R. Tootell,\* C. Oyolu, H. Herrell,\* M. Castaneda, V. Vincent, I. H. Kim,  
M. Lawan, J. Cooper,\* J. Loftus,\* C. Wylie,\* T. Ayers,\* E. Betts;\* seated: K. Rajbhandary,  
P. Aylesworth,\* S. Foster, R. Silkett,\* A. Blaisdell,\* V. Kohler,\* J. Dukuly.  
\*Staff



## LECTURES

### I CRITICAL ROLE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN A CHANGING SOCIETY by R. B. Tootell, Governor, Farm Credit Administration



Gov. Tootell has had long experience in farm credit and agr. ext. work. He served with the Farm Credit Admin. in various capacities from 1934-43. He is the former Dir. of Agr. Ext. Ser. in Mont. and Wash. He received a B. S. degree from Mont. St. Col., and M. S. degree from the Univ. of Calif., and attended the Graduate School of Public Admin. at Harvard Univ. He served as Consultant to ICA in credit fields.

#### Summary

#### A. Adjustment of Public Administration Method

Administering well the affairs of the public is difficult in any society because of the characteristics of the people and of all human nature. All societies are changing societies though some may change more significantly than others and public administration methods and procedures, therefore, should be adjusted to the peculiarities of differing cultures and societies.

Normally a system of public administration in a country is the product of its culture--way of life--and functions best in terms of that culture. In the United States, for example, the basic concept of public administration is that the official serves the public, not a favored few in it; nor does he use his position to make himself a fortune. Most public administrators in the U. S. believe in service to the public. A good example of this is the Agricultural Extension work which is organized with emphasis on universal education for farmers, the voluntary cooperation of farmers, and local participation in program determination and execution.

#### B. Critical Problems

The critical problems of public administration arise out of the impact that rapid changes in the development of resources have on society. The major factors responsible for such critical situations are: (1) the great emphasis applied to the physical aspects of development such as dams, roads, machinery, etc; (2) the little attention given institutional aspects of

development, such as human relations, the core of which is effective public administration; (3) the old systems of public administration which are not adequate to meet the rapid development resulting from imported technology; (4) the new systems of public administration which fail to meet the demands of the situation because they have been borrowed wholesale from abroad and imposed by authorities from above. The results of these situations are often unbalanced development, disorganization, and frustration.

### C. Illustrations

Problems of administration created in situations of rapid development can be illustrated in any number of ways: (1) the implementation of a merit system for the recruitment of personnel might clash with personal loyalties to friends and family; (2) the concept of "delegation of responsibility" to personnel on various levels may conflict with traditional patterns of centralized authority in government; (3) participation by citizens in program planning and implementation could be obstructed by a traditional gap separating the farmers from the authorities; (4) the assignment of qualified personnel to government positions might be obstructed by low pay, which is, in turn, the result of an inadequate system of taxation; (5) the spirit of nationalism desiring rapid economic development is impatient with the slow process of institutional growth within the governmental organization.

### D. Conclusion

It must be remembered, then, that the prevailing system of public administration in a country cannot be dismissed, ignored, or changed abruptly. Change must come slowly and on a long-term basis. Opening the doors for the people to participate effectively in national plans and programs is perhaps the most basic requirement for bringing about deep-rooted change. The general recognition of needs provides a broad and solid base, and the dynamic stimulation that is essential for building a stable and progressive system.

Training must be done in the administrative field to keep pace with the training of personnel in purely technical fields.

The organization of programs should be given equal attention, effort and priority with the physical aspect.

### Discussion

1. How can programs for agricultural development fit into plans for developing the total economy of the country?
2. If agricultural development isn't getting the necessary attention in the total economic plans in the country, what alternatives have you?
3. How do you assure that the members of your staff have a clear understanding of the purpose or objectives of the organization?
4. How can I install new ideas and methods when my superior has no appreciation of them?



II FUNDAMENTALS OF ADMINISTRATION  
by H. G. Herrell, Ass't Adm., Management, AMS



Mr. Herrell attended National Univ., now a part of George Washington Univ. (LL.B.) and Ben Franklin Univ. (B.C.S.) He is a member of the District of Columbia bar. He has held various admin. positions in the Dep't of Agr., including Exec. Sec., Agr. Res. Pol. Comm.; Exec. Ass't to the Admin., Res. and Mark'g Act; Exec. Off., Office of Labor; and Ass't Chief, Bureau of Ento. and Plant Quarantine.

Summary

The "fundamentals" have been developed from written materials, group discussion, lectures, laboratory experiences, observations of effective and ineffective administrators, and practical experiences.

The six factors listed and used by some administrators are: planning, organizing, deputizing, supervising, humanizing, and communicating.

The "Stone Tablet" group exercise was used to bring out these factors. This exercise also served to demonstrate the principles of the "Pyramid of Learning" where personal involvement results in the highest degree of absorption.

1. Planning -- Adequate, timely consideration of who shall do what; and when, how, and why.
2. Organizing -- Grouping similar functions in single-command units having authority compatible with responsibility, so as to utilize men, money, and materials fully in achieving the organizational aims.
3. Deputizing -- Selecting, training, and placing individuals in positions, and authorizing them to do assigned jobs according to organizational plan.
4. Supervising -- Maintaining controls and inspection to reflect currently the adequacy of plans, effectiveness and efficiency of organization, extent of progress, and problems.
5. Humanizing -- Considering the human desires, strengths, and weaknesses



of each individual in the organization, and assisting him in moving toward "success" as he measures it.

6. Communicating -- Communicate - communicate - communicate--vertically, horizontally, diagonally, and then begin over again.

Exercise 1 - What are the items that need to be considered in Planning?

The size and scope of project	Facilities needed
Time limitations	Funding arrangements
Special skills needed	Geographical factors
The planned use of personal time	Weather conditions
Work of others (agencies, etc.)	Public relations
The who, when, what, and how	The "selling" job
Long range - short range	

Exercise 2 - What is important in getting the job done through others?

Clearly defined objectives  
Plans (know the facts; consider alternatives; allow flexibility)  
Selection of people to do job  
Facilities (funds, people, materials)  
Full information on plan of work (communications)  
Delegation of responsibility and control  
Enthusiasm  
Cooperation  
Supervision (inspect, evaluate, modify)

Exercise 3 - Qualities desired in an administrator (a man you'd like to work for).

Decisive; sound; balanced	Emotionally stable
Sincere	Communicates clearly
Reasonable; patient	Persuasive
Able to listen	Has sense of humor
Enthusiastic	Has common sense
Authoritative; knowledgeable	Imaginative
	Has integrity

Exercise 4 - Film: "Eye of the Beholder"

Other exercises:

1. List six or eight questions you, as a supervisor or administrator, should ask yourself in evaluating your own performance.
2. List the criteria you feel are important in delegating authority.
3. List ten causes of employee discontent in an organization.
4. List six or eight areas in which you feel you have authority to improve the management on your job.

III ORGANIZATION OF THE U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE  
by Joseph P. Loftus, Dir., Office of Adm. Mgmt.



Mr. Loftus has been Dir., Off. of Admin. Mgmt., USDA, since 1958. He is a graduate of St. Mary's Col. of Kan. and has had a variety of experience, both public and private. Prior to assuming his present duties with the Off. of Admin. Mgmt., which was organized under his direction, Mr. Loftus was with the Off. of Budget & Finance for 12 years. He came to USDA in 1945 after previous experience in the Gen. Acc. Off. and the Soc. Sec. Board. He received a Superior Service Award from the USDA in 1956.

Summary

A. Chronology of the Development of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and Related Organizations and Agencies

1. The Department of Agriculture was created by an Act of Congress in 1862.
2. States were encouraged to establish Land-Grant Colleges by an Act passed this same year. This Act donated 11 million acres of public lands to the several States and Territories for teaching agricultural and mechanical arts.
3. In 1887, the Hatch Experiment Station Act provided for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations in connection with the colleges.
4. In 1914 Federal grants were authorized for assistance to State Extension Services as a means of carrying out information and findings from the land-grant institutions and agricultural experiment stations.

B. Activities of the USDA

Departmental programs, when analyzed without regard to organizational entities, provide for:

1. Research -- The Department works closely on research programs with State experiment stations; State departments of agriculture, and other public and private agencies.
2. Regulatory -- Control and regulatory programs, including plant and animal quarantines, meat inspections, and others.

3. Education and Information -- Research findings and information on programs administered by the USDA.
4. Marketing -- Marketing and distribution functions including market news, inspection, grading, and standardization work and marketing agreements and orders.
5. Conservation -- A national program of cost-sharing with farmers and ranchers of soil and water conservation practices; technical assistance in soil and water conservation and conservation of forest and related range and water resources.
6. Stabilization -- Price support operations and crop insurance programs.
7. Credit -- Supplements private sources of credit where necessary.

C. Decentralization of USDA Operations

1. Field locations (outside Washington) approximate 10,000. Of about 70,000 full-time permanent employees, 84% are in the field.
2. Delegation of authority is necessary for decentralized operation.
  - a. Many activities are directed from State offices.
  - b. Great reliance is placed on written procedures, manuals of instruction, handbooks, etc., for adherence to policy guidance.
  - c. Regional or area offices provide business services (payroll, procurement, accounting, etc.) for field activities.
  - d. To the extent possible, decisions are made at levels of organization closest to farmers or other clientele served.

D. Advisory Groups

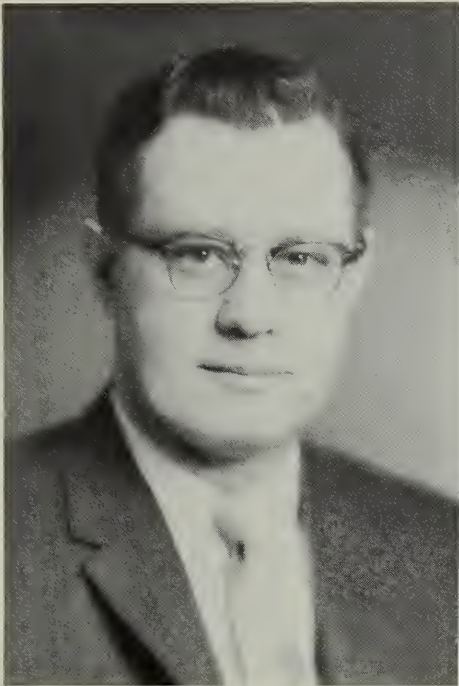
Through committees, agencies of the Department consult with farmers and other citizens in administering many aspects of USDA programs.

E. Coordinating Devices Used to Strengthen Department Operations Include:

1. Administrative regulations which provide general guidance on policy and procedure.
2. A Policy staff group to resolve broad issues and recommend action to the Secretary.
3. The budgetary process, whereby planning of Department activities is related to financing requirements and alternatives.



IV EFFECTIVE USE OF PERSONNEL  
by Ernest C. Betts, Jr., Dir., Office of Personnel



Mr. Betts, a native of Wis., has served as Dir. of Pers. of the USDA since 1956. He is a graduate of State Teachers Col., Wis., and has been a teacher and principal in Wis. public schools. Mr. Betts held various admin. posts with the Soil Cons. Ser.; USDA Off. of Budget & Finance; the USDA Library; the Dep't of State, Div. of Budget; the U. S. Embassy, Beirut, Lebanon; and the Tech. Coop. Admin.

Summary

A. Philosophy of Administration

The problem of human relations--how to get things done with people--how to organize--is at the heart of public administration.

The objective is to acquire and maintain a competent work force and to create an attitude of service.

The true measure of any leader is how many subordinates he has developed into executive positions.

The job of the administrator, leader, director, or supervisor is to provide situations or the climate that will produce actions consistent with the objectives of the organizations.

The art and science of personnel administration is the responsibility of every supervisor. The central office of personnel exists to provide the tools and know how to the supervisor.

B. Motivation

1. Study each person as an individual--his intelligence, experience, energy output, personal goals, interests, abilities, and handicaps.
2. Recognize and understand the employee's desire for belonging to a group, for recognition as an individual, his need for job security, for a voice in his own destination, and a part of management.
3. Be a living example of a motivated force. Enthusiasm for the common goal or objective is catching.

4. Adopt as a personal goal--"to be the kind of person you like to employ and the kind of supervisor you would like to work for."

#### C. Development

1. Each employee has fundamental basic urges--security; procreation; self-assertion; sense of accomplishment. Recognize and build on these urges in the development of personnel.
2. All employee development is self-development. The organization cannot develop a person--it can only provide opportunity for development to take place by:
  - a. Offering encouragement
  - b. Providing a climate for the employee to grow and develop his maximum potential
3. Develop performance standards with both employee and employer agreeing on the levels.
4. Employ
  - a. Put people on their own to the maximum extent.
  - b. Advise and direct employees on the job.
  - c. Provide incentives for self-improvement.
  - d. Give the individual practice in making decisions.
  - e. Develop employee pride in his work and organization.

#### D. Training

1. Kinds of training:
  - a. Training in basic human understanding and relationships to meet various situations.
  - b. Training to improve technical competence; to update technical knowledge in the employees technical field.
2. On-the-job-training:
  - a. Rotation of jobs
  - b. Adaptation to technician
  - c. Holding of institutes, conferences, workshops.

#### E. Employment Picture of the USDA

1. Number of employees  
35,000 including permanent full-time and part-time
2. Kinds of positions  
25,000 professional, scientific, technical, plus supporting type positions and clerical employees.
3. Civil Service Act of 1883 ("The Merit System")  
"Commission shall govern and regulate appointments to the classified service."
4. Career Service concept  
Appointments and promotions by merit

V MAIN STEPS IN PLANNING AND EVALUATION  
by J. Neil Raudabaugh, Ass't Dir., Ext. Res. & Training Div.



Mr. Raudabaugh, Ass't Dir., Ext. Res. & Training Div., joined the staff of FES in 1955. Prior to that he served for eight years as State leader of ext. studies and training at Iowa State Col. with the academic rank of assoc. prof. His background of experience includes vocational agr. teaching, public school admin., and county ext. work. Mr. Raudabaugh received his B. S. and M. S. at Iowa State Col. where he has also done advanced study.

Summary

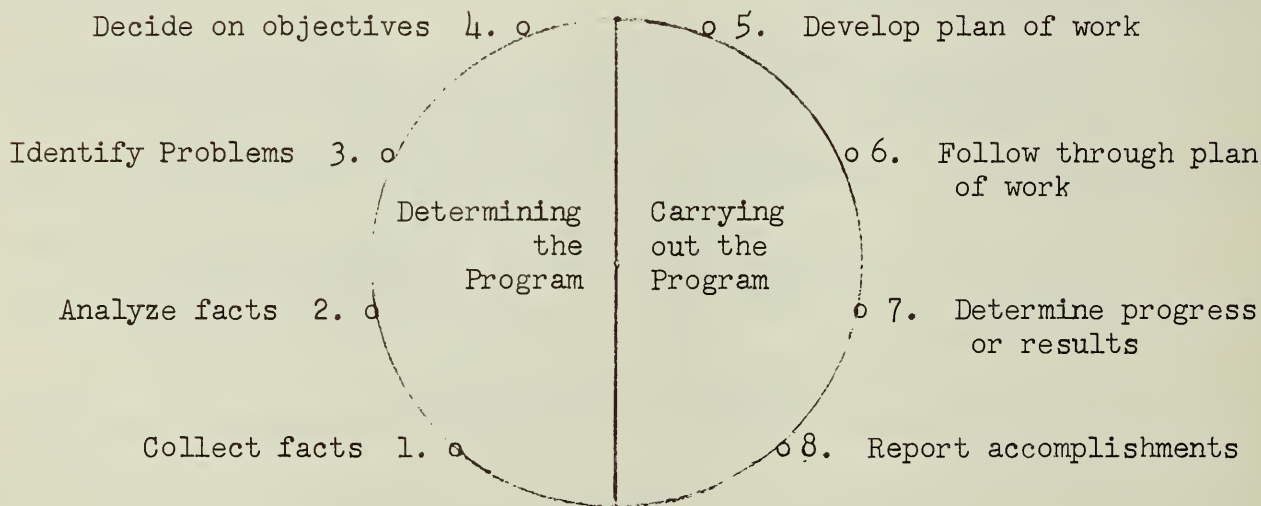
A. Sound Program Development:

1. Is a teaching and learning process  
(Leads people to see beyond present felt needs to basic problems, is developmental, should develop leadership.)
2. Is a continuous process which provides for continuity as well as flexibility  
(Each teaching and learning experience enables people to see more clearly what they need and what their true objectives are. It becomes a guide which leads to the next steps for the months and years ahead.)
3. Is planned with and not for the people concerned  
(Those who plan together work together and develop enthusiasm for a program.)
4. Is based on and grows out of recognized problems and felt needs of local people  
(Starts where the people are with recognized customs and cultural patterns.)
5. Is based on an analysis of facts: local, state, national, and international  
(Identifies limitations of means or resources, implies a look ahead to changes and trends.)
6. Includes cooperatively determined objectives which offer satisfactions  
(Clearly-defined objectives which are within the reach of people, build interest and motivate action.)



7. Includes a definite plan of work  
(This is the answer to who will be involved, what, where, when and how each objective will be accomplished.)
8. Provides for evaluation to show results in terms of changes in the action of people  
(Determines the degree to which the objective for the problems are accomplished, helps to give guidance for the program ahead, and serves as a check on teaching procedures.)
9. Is a coordinating process  
(It unifies the efforts of the family, all interested leaders, groups, and agencies and considers the use of resources.)
10. Provides for balance with recognized emphasis  
(Covers the majority of important interests with some timely problems chosen for emphasis to avoid scattered effort.)

### Program Evaluation



### County Background Situation

## VI EXPERIENCES IN GROUP DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMS

Panel: J. Neil Raudabaugh, Tom L. Ayers, Barnard D. Joy



Mr. Ayers is Ass't to the Admin. of the Agr. Cons. Prog. Ser. He was a Vocational Agr. teacher and also taught Voc. Agr. teachers for ten years. He joined the Agr. Adj. staff of the USDA in 1934 and has occupied several positions in that agency. He received his B. S. degree from Clemson Col., S. C. and his M. A. degree from Peabody Col., Tennessee.

Dr. Joy is Ass't to the Admin., Agr. Res. Ser. He has a background of 18 years experience in the Agr. Ext. Ser. and has been associated with work under the Res. & Mktg. Act since 1948. He received a Superior Service Award in 1952 for his work with this program. He has a B. S. degree from Oregon St. Col., a M. S. degree from Md. Univ., and a Ph. D. degree from George Wash. Univ.

### Summary

#### A. Extension Program Development

County extension work includes (1) all the human and material resources employed for the purposes of extension in a county; (2) the manner in which these resources are organized; and (3) the procedures followed in utilizing them for the purpose of planning, conducting, and evaluating an educational program.

Program development is an intensive and broad effort on the part of the Cooperative Extension Service to assist the people of a county in their attempts, collectively, to analyze their major problems and to build an educational program directed toward the improvement of agriculture and family and community living.

# 1. Guidelines to Program Development

- a. Committee member selection to represent relevant systems, interests, and geographic areas
- b. Understanding of role of staff and committee members
- c. Development of operational plan for program development
- d. Analysis of the social and economic development
- e. Determination of priority of problems, needs, and interests
- f. Determination of objectives or goals (scope of program)
- g. Coordination of program with other groups, organizations, and agencies

# 2. Program action

- a. Plan of work
- b. Leader training
- c. Techniques, methods, materials
- d. Evaluation
- e. Reporting accomplishments

# 3. Group action

- a. Concepts and principles of group action and leadership
  - 1) Recognize special interest areas
  - 2) Discover common interest areas
  - 3) Take time for group development to take place
- b. Understanding of leadership
  - 1) Provide opportunity for leadership to emerge around problem areas
- c. Thorough understanding of goals
  - 1) Group needs to participate in determination
- d. More need for specialized leadership in moving from primary groups
- e. Dynamics of group in action
  - 1) Build group to perform task
- f. Group-centered approach associated with culture
- g. Relationship of new to familiar shown
  - 1) Demonstration approach

## B. Farmer Committee System

Committees of farmers have been used extensively in the development and administration of agricultural adjustment and conservation programs since 1933. These committees are currently called Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation (ASC) Committees. These committees administer various programs of the Department that reach directly to individual farmers. (The conservation practices cost sharing program, and various production adjustment and price support programs.)

There is one ASC Committee for each agricultural community (about 30,000); one ASC Committee for each agricultural county (about 3,000). In all, approximately 100,000 ASC farmer committeemen are selected annually by fellow-farmers. The county agricultural Extension agent is an ex officio member of the county ASC Committee.

County committees are similar to boards of directors. They develop



programs, establish policies, employ a manager, and supervise work of their staff. They are assisted by technical workers of other USDA and State Services, as needed. Community committees advise on programs and policies and assist in informing their neighbors.

There is a State committee of three to five farmers appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture in each State. The Director of the Agricultural Extension Service is an ex-officio member of this committee. This committee has State-wide responsibility for the development and administration of the same programs for which the county committees have local responsibility.

### C. Agricultural Research Advisory Committees

#### 1. Commodity and functional committees --

There are twenty-five commodity and functional committees which advise the Department with respect to the developments of its research and marketing service programs. These committees carry out the following functions:

- a. Acquaint themselves with the problems of producers, processors, distributors, and consumers.
- b. Review current research and marketing service programs of the Department and recommend adjustments in order that funds will be used on problems of greatest importance.
- c. Recommend new work or expansion of current work indicating priority.
- d. Develop a better understanding of the nature and value of the agricultural research program.

#### 2. Research Policy Committee --

A national committee reviews the research program of the Department and the recommendations of the commodity and functional committees and advises the Department.

### Discussion

1. What are some of the blocks to participation of people in program development?
2. Is it possible to establish some standards in planning without knowing what the expectations are?
3. How do you get uniform compliance in a program developed under the farmer committee system?
4. Is there a tendency for the strong members of advisory committees to oversell their particular fields of interest? What safeguards do you have?

VII DIRECTION AND COORDINATION OF EMPLOYEES  
by C. E. Wylie, Ass't Dir., Office of Adm. Mgmt.



Mr. Wylie began his career in the USDA approximately 25 years ago, in the Re-settlement Admin. He worked in the Mich. State Office, the Regional Office, the agency's headquarters. Mr. Wylie's Washington career includes mgmt. service in the Dep't's Off. of Budget & Finance, in the Off. of Food Programs, For. Econ. Admin. and in the Prod. and Mktg. Admin. and the Comm. Stab. Ser. He has been Ass't Dir. of the Dep't's Off. of Admin. Mgmt. since 1958.

Summary

A. Functions of the Administrator

The job of the modern administrator is nearly always complex and difficult. He is expected to be familiar with, even if he doesn't personally exercise, all the standard management functions. The one which may be the most important to his personal effectiveness and the success of the enterprise, and which he is most likely to participate in personally, is the direction of employees.

B. Administration Direction -- A Communication Process

"Think like a wise man, but communicate in the language of the people."

-- William Butler Yeats

The products of the administrator's effort and skill are: (1) decisions; (2) policy or courses of action; and (3) employee motivation, or the will to work. These are achieved by the process of communication--the heart and soul of administrative direction.

C. Communications and the Administrator

1. What is communication? -- Communication has been defined as "any behavior that leads to an exchange of meaning." "It is the way one organization passes meaning and understanding to another. Communication occurs only when the recipient registers the information transmitted." -- Keith Davis
2. What are the administrator's objectives in communication?

- a. The first objective of administrative communication is to provide information and understanding necessary for coordination and job performance.
  - b. The second objective is to provide the social understanding and loyalty necessary for motivation, cooperation, and job satisfaction.
3. What are the basic communications media?
- a. Individual contact -- face to face or by telephone
  - b. Staff meetings, work conferences -- group situations
  - c. Letters and memoranda -- transmitting information and decisions
  - d. Circular letters -- information to a large number
  - e. Codified directives -- transmitting permanent directions
  - f. Reports -- evaluating performance and testing policies
  - g. Public information media -- telling the public (to ensure understanding and acceptance of the program).

D. The Nature of the Organization

1. The direction and coordination of employee is characterized by magnitude and complexity.
2. The needs and problems of communication are strongly influenced by the size and structure of the organization, and by the number and dispersal of employees.
  - a. Each unit has its own needs, in relationship to the total organization and the total program.
  - b. Each employee has his individual needs.
3. Policies and procedures are in constant adjustment.
  - a. People and events within the organization are in constant motion resulting from administrative decisions and interaction with each other.
4. Formal and informal organization, both provide channels for communication.

Discussion

1. What are some of the barriers to good communication?
2. What are the results of good communication? Is it worth the cost?
3. Are there standard features which characterize all media in a well organized communications system?



VIII THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR  
by W. R. Van Dersal, Ass't Adm., SCS, USDA



Dr. Van Dersal has had some 25 years of experience in the 'gov't, about one-half of which has been devoted to problems in admin. He is author of numerous books and other published material dealing with many phases of conservation, supervision, staff organization, training, operations management and the like. He has recently returned from a year's leave of absence under a Rockefeller Public Service Award during which he reviewed admin. of natural resource programs in the U. S., Canada, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand.

Summary

The principal role of the supervisor, manager, administrator, is that of getting work done through other people--the field of human relations.

In order to develop guidelines a study was made several years ago of reactions of persons who had been designated as good supervisors or administrators by their chief. Running through all the replies were some common ideas.

A. Principles of Supervision

1. People must understand clearly what is expected of them.
  - a. What is the agency? What does it do? How does it do it? How is it organized?
  - b. Who is his supervisor?
  - c. What is his job? How does it fit in?
  - d. Facilities available
  - e. Associates, and what they do
  - f. History of agency
  - g. How the quality and quantity of his work will be measured
  - h. Career opportunities
2. People must have guidance in doing their work.
  - a. Information; news and technical
  - b. Techniques ("how to do it")
  - c. Personality improvement
3. Good work must always be recognized.

a. Tell him	c. Promotion	e. Certificate of merit
b. Write him	d. Bonus	f. Awards, medals

4. Poor work deserves constructive criticism.

- a. A man must recognize that he has a fault.
- b. He must not be too discouraged when he realizes it.
- c. He must develop a desire to overcome it.
- d. Helpful advice and encouragement on progress is necessary.

5. People must have opportunities to show that they can accept greater responsibility.

6. People should be encouraged to improve themselves.

- a. Create desire to go on learning.
- b. Books help (See Book List in References)

7. People should work in a safe and healthful environment.

B. Being A Supervisor

Being a supervisor or leading is hard work. It requires that the leader pay constant attention to almost everything the people do in order to be really effective in guiding them. He must also set an example. Being a supervisor is measured through:

1. Attitude -- interest in people, patience, sympathy and tolerance, loyalty, tact, dependability, cooperation, etc.
2. Traits -- sense of humor, enthusiasm, imagination, common sense, integrity.
3. Abilities -- teaching, training, communicating, organizing, planning.

An exercise to underscore the strong and weak points of supervisor or administrators was carried out. This was done through discussion in response to the question, "What are the characteristics of a 'lousy' supervisor--what don't you like?"

The answers developed by the group included the following:

Never gives any credit for good work to his people; too close checking ("Snoopervision"); a "yes" man; fails to give necessary information; temperamental; doesn't accept new ideas; superior attitude; plays favorites; lack of "human sensibility"; self centered; lack of sense of humor; sets a bad example through personal conduct; abuses or misuses or exceeds authority; fails to lead his people; too talkative; "know it all"; by-passes channels of authority; lack of knowledge about his work; irresponsible; and has an inferiority complex.

## IX THE COMMUNICATIONS PROCESS

Panel: Hal R. Taylor, J. Neil Raudabaugh, Bryan Phifer



Mr. Taylor is Inf. Spec. for For. Training, Off. of Info., USDA. He has a B. S. degree in Agr. Journ. from the Univ. of Mo. and an M. A. degree in Gen. Comm. from Mich. St. Univ. His experience includes ext. educ. work at N. M., Ohio St., and Wyo. Univ. and Train. Spec. for the Nat'l Project in Agr. Comm., Mich. St. University.



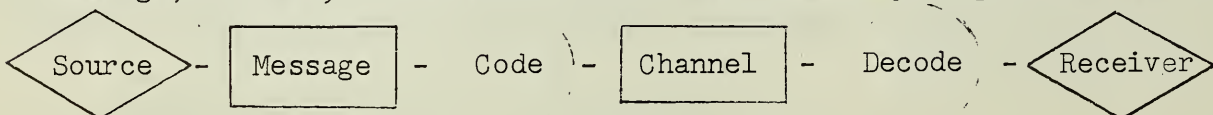
Mr. Phifer has been in the Information Program Div., FES, since 1954. He received his B. S. and M. A. degrees from the Univ. of Mo. He is a former county agent, Agr. Editor, and teacher at the Univ. of Mo. Mr. Phifer has developed training aids and held numerous communications training conferences with Extension workers.

### Summary

#### A. Communications Model

The communication process consists of human interaction without which the person trying to communicate is only putting forth noise due to lack of understanding on the part of the receiver.

There are four basic elements in the communication process: audience, message, channel, and treatment. The structure may be pictured as follows:



Effective communications require that the Source of the communication reflect knowledge, enthusiasm, skill and desire to put ideas across. The



Message must be in a clear and organized code, its content concise and explanatory, The message must be directed in a Channel of one or more of the five senses. The Sender must be aware of the knowledge and attitudes of the Receiver.

Communications must surmount the fact that the knowledge held by the receiver may be different from that of the source. The Source and the Receiver each have different social-cultural backgrounds which communications must penetrate.

Before the system will work, some purpose for communication must be introduced. The sender must think in terms of purpose and the person to be affected before he begins communication because communication includes acceptance and implementation.

#### B. The Diffusion Process\*

People change their minds and accept new ideas at different rates. It is not a unit process.

Steps in the acceptance of new ideas are:

1. Awareness -- knowing about it but lacking details
2. Interest -- gathering of additional information as interest grows
3. Evaluation -- mental application to personal situation; can I do it?
4. Trial -- small scale experimental use; how to do it
5. Adoption -- large scale continued use; satisfaction

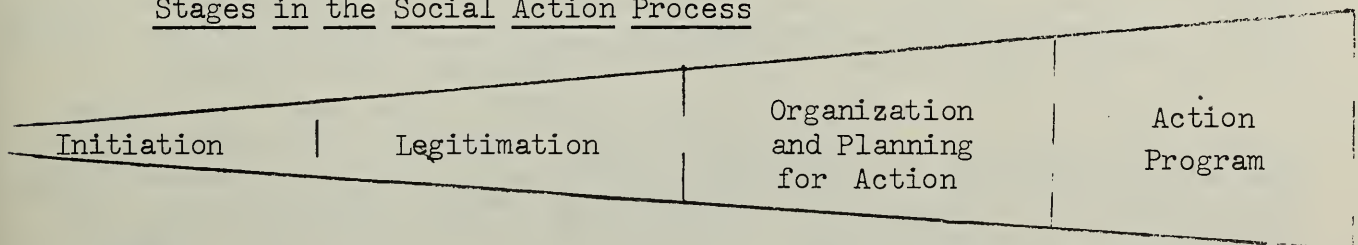
Mass media such as radio, television, newspapers, etc., are most effective in the awareness and interest stages. Opinions of neighbors and friends have the greatest influence in the trial and evaluation stages.

#### C. Social Action Process

Group action is a process that goes on within an organization to initiate policy and change. The ideas and views of many people is essential to effective action. Evaluation, decision making, and planning are a part of the continuing process as individuals and groups work on the subject.

The social system must be taken into account in dealing with problem situations and proposals.

##### Stages in the Social Action Process



#### D. Films

Communication Primer and Gram Sevak

\* References: "How Farm People Accept New Ideas"-- Special Report No. 15, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, 1955.

## X DECISION MAKING

by J. P. Loftus, Dir., Office of Adm. Mgmt., USDA



Mr. Loftus has been Dir., Off. of Admin. Mgmt., USDA, since 1958. He is a graduate of St. Mary's Col. of Kan. and has had a variety of experience, both public and private. Prior to assuming his present duties with the Off. of Admin. Mgmt., which was organized under his direction, Mr. Loftus was with the Off. of Budget & Finance for 12 years. He came to USDA in 1945 after previous experience in the Gen. Acc. Off. and the Soc. Sec. Board. He received a Superior Service Award from the USDA in 1956.

### Summary

#### A. Job of the Administrator

The job of the administrator is often defined as one who makes decisions, communicates decisions, and motivates people to execute decisions. This concept has been popularized by Herbert A. Simon (See Item No. 7 of EXCERPTS).

#### B. Decision-Making

Every decision involves two elements: a factual element which is based on test and experience and a value element in which ethical considerations or standards of judgment exercise influence. Rational decision-making involves three elements, each adapted to the accomplishment of specific goals: calculation of alternatives, evaluation of consequences, establishment of a system of values. Kinds of decisions under this theory are reducible to two types; fact decisions and value decisions. In an organization, lower levels deal with fact decisions and higher levels deal with value decisions.

An organization is a system of equilibrium in which there is a balance between group purpose and individual motive. Therefore, an administrator does his job when he: (1) makes rational decisions consistent with a fixed value system; (2) communicates the decisions to his organization; and (3) establishes a favorable climate for action by getting a balance between group purpose and individual motive.

#### C. The Network

Decision-making is just one element of the total management job. But,

depending upon the big decision concerning objectives, it is obvious that many decisions are required to direct the program and measure results. An agency head is expected to carry out administration policy and is accountable to the Congress which does not necessarily speak with one voice. He must reckon with the Appropriations Committee, the Committee of Agriculture and Forestry, The Committee on Government Operations, etc. He has a relationship with the Judicial Branch of the government if his agency is involved in court cases. He has to work with people in the organization responsible to him, with clientele groups and must always take account of public relations in the broad sense of newspapers, radio, TV, etc. A final factor may be partisan politics. Decision-making viewed in this perspective involves a complex network of elements. His strategy must be to reconcile or satisfy, in tolerable degree, these varied interests, in the public interest.

#### D. Decision Making Shared

Making decisions is a two-sided problem; in part institutional and in part individual. As an institution the Department of Agriculture tries to place decision-making on a broad base. Through such groups as the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Committees, the local governing bodies of the Soil Conservation Districts, the grazing boards used by the Forest Service and through the organizational structure of the Department, ideas are generated and recommendations are advanced on which decisions must be made by responsible officials. Decision-making is shared.

#### E. Standards

Decisions call for standards. This refers to standards in the sense of specifications essential for an acceptable solution to a problem situation. "It is false to say the circumstances decide. On the contrary, circumstances are the dilemma, constantly renewed, in the presence of which we have to make our own decisions; what actually decides is our character." (Quoted from José Ortega y Gasset.)

#### F. Guides for Action in Making Decisions

1. Be sure a problem exists.
2. Can it be solved by precedent?
3. Separate facts from opinions.
4. If a group decisions, be sure each member has all the facts.
5. Determine a clear objective.
6. Develop alternative courses of action.
7. Determine which has best chance of success.
8. Recognize possible human and material limits on your choice of action.
9. Communicate the problem, the decision, and the policy so that your people will understand and support your action.
10. Follow up, to evaluate results and possibly to amend or revise the original decision made.



XI THE ART OF DECISION MAKING  
by M. H. Holliday, Jr., Ass't Adm. for Oper., FHA, USDA



Mr. Holliday, ass't admin. of Operations, Farmers Home Admin., was born in Jackson, Ky., and graduated from Moorehead State Col. in Ky. He served for eight years as general agent with a life insurance company. In 1942, he started a country newspaper which grew to eight newspapers published by the Holliday Pub. Co., and for several months, he served as a special ass't to Sen. Cooper in Ky. In Nov., 1954 he entered his present position with the Department.

Summary

A. Formula for Decision-Making

1. The process of decision making can be broken down into five phases:  
(a) Defining the problem; (b) Analyzing the problem; (c) Developing alternative solutions; (d) Finding the best solution; (e) Making decision effective.
2. The administrator in arriving at a decision follows a formula of personal involvement in the situation plus consideration of available courses of action plus possible consequences and relates all of this to his own sense of values.

B. Pigor's Incident Process (Used by special permission of the copyright owners--The Bureau of National Affairs)

The "Incident Process" is a method of learning from actual cases that involved real people in real situations. The process is composed of six phases:

- Phase 1. The Incident: An incident is introduced. It calls for a decision. It is a sketchy statement containing little factual information. Immediately the group goes into a fact-finding or investigating session.
- Phase 2. Fact Finding: The process of fact finding is the determination of what happened, when, where, how, why and who was there. The leader has the answers to questions partly from his "Manual" with which he must be familiar. He also had partly prepared attachments

or hand-outs. These are given out in response to pertinent questions by the group. The facts are accumulated, sorted, discussed and evaluated by the group.

- Phase 3. Determining the Issue: The next step is to determine the real issue or problem which brought about the incident. After the issue and sub-issues have been determined, the group is ready to decide upon a course of action and to make a decision based upon an analysis of the relevant facts.
- Phase 4. Deciding the Issue: Each member of the group now assumes an arbitrator's role, considering the facts, and writes out a decision on what to do about the issue. These are submitted to the leader who then divides the group into sub-groups consistent with their position on the issue. Each sub-group convenes, appoints a spokesman, and develops its supporting reasons for its stand.
- Phase 5. Evaluating the Group Decision-Making Procedures: After deliberation, the entire group is reconvened and each spokesman presents the supporting reasons for the position taken by his group. A discussion period regarding the supporting evidence presented by the spokesman is held pointing up pertinent or overlooked facts. The actual decision made in the case is read by the leader so that each person can compare the group decision with those actually made by the officials involved in the incident.
- Phase 6. Comparing and Contrasting: This phase provides an opportunity for group members to think through what the case has in common with situations they face in their jobs. For example, are there some valid principles that keep recurring in a variety of situations? After repeatedly seeing how certain principles apply to cases, the group soon recognizes that the same principle applies to their individual actions also.

### C. Exercise

The group carried out the process using the incident "The Showdown"; the following is an example:

1. Learning the incident
2. Fact Finding--questions asked the group regarding the incident to secure all possible facts
3. Identifying the problem--framing the specific issue
4. Making the decision

## XII MANAGEMENT CONTROLS

by J. C. Cooper, Jr., Dep. Dir., Office of Budget & Finance, USDA



Mr. Cooper, Dep. Dir., Off. of Budget and Finance, USDA, joined the Dep't in 1934, and served in the Farm Credit Admin. and the Off. of Budget & Finance. He is a graduate of Furman Univ., Greenville, S. C., where he earned his B. A. degree. He has a wide background in public accounting specializing in municipalities and educational and financial institutions.

### Summary

#### A. Definition and Philosophy

Management Control -- The techniques used by management to assure that all operations are carried out in accordance with established policies and plans.

Present Philosophy of Management Control -- The advent of automation, including electronic data processing, has served to focus attention on skillful management and the utilization of effective controls. Engineers, management experts, business consultants, educators, and a host of others are exploring the field of control. As a result of the exploration, new concepts of control are being developed. It is the positive approach to control as a management aid--not a device to prohibit people from doing things.

In the United States Government, for example, and in the USDA, the types of controls depend on who does the controlling and on what is to be controlled. The general objectives of management controls are to effectuate program goals, assure compliance with laws and regulations, assure adherence to management policies and plans, promote operational efficiency, safeguard the assets and assure accurate and timely financial and operating data.

#### B. General Control Characteristics

1. Not strictly mechanical
2. Measured or evaluated for each particular circumstance
3. Patterned to fit need
4. Required in Federal agencies by Statute



5. Understood and accepted by employees
6. Frequently reviewed and appraised

In general the characteristics of management control in the USDA are the involvement of people--adequate in number and efficient in capacity and training--without whom control could not function completely and effectively; the measurement or evaluation of control for each particular circumstance; the specific designing of controls to fit particular needs; the implementation of controls required in Federal agencies by statute; the understanding and acceptance of controls by employees; and frequent reviewing and appraisal to avoid obsolete and outmoded control.

### C. Control Techniques

1. Controls over manpower may be maintained through:
  - a. Organization--Pinpoints responsibility and accountability; and fosters group effort and pride of achievement.
  - b. Personnel Selection, Training and Placement--Increases the effectiveness and efficiency of other management controls.
  - c. Systems, Methods, Procedures--Assures uniform treatment by providing well-thought-out processes for getting things done.
  - d. Standards--Serve as a working basis to assure conformity and a criterion for measurement of work accomplishment.
2. Controls over money and materials
  - a. Budgeting--Crystalizes operating plans in financial terms, translating all program plans to financial requirements for consideration of management.
  - b. Accounting--Provides current and historical records of financial transactions which set forth trends and provide other information as the basis for management planning, as well as fixing accountabilities and responsibilities.
  - c. Reports and review--Provide data for measuring performance, reflect accountabilities, and provide a basis for future planning.
  - d. Communication--Provides effective interchange of information and shared understanding to assure teamwork.

### References:

Reference material on budget and fiscal administration was reviewed. This included Administrative Regulations, Accountability Reports, Budget Formulation; Report on Budget Status and the like.

See EXCERPT, Item No. 9, "Integrated Auditing" for discussion of management controls.

XIII FOLLOW-UP  
by E. N. Fulker, Dep. Dir., Graduate School



Mr. Fulker is Ass't Dir. of the Graduate School. He has B. S. and M. S. degrees in psychology from Purdue Univ. Prior to his coming to the Dep't. three years ago, he was dir. of the Air Force reading improvement program and taught at Purdue for two years. He also set up and directed a reading improvement program for the Department.

Summary

A. Sum-up

1. Agreement on objectives--what short course has been about. Appraisal of what has been done.
2. What do you plan to do when you return home? What to share? How share and apply? How bridge gap from theory to practice?

B. Statements of Plans by Participants

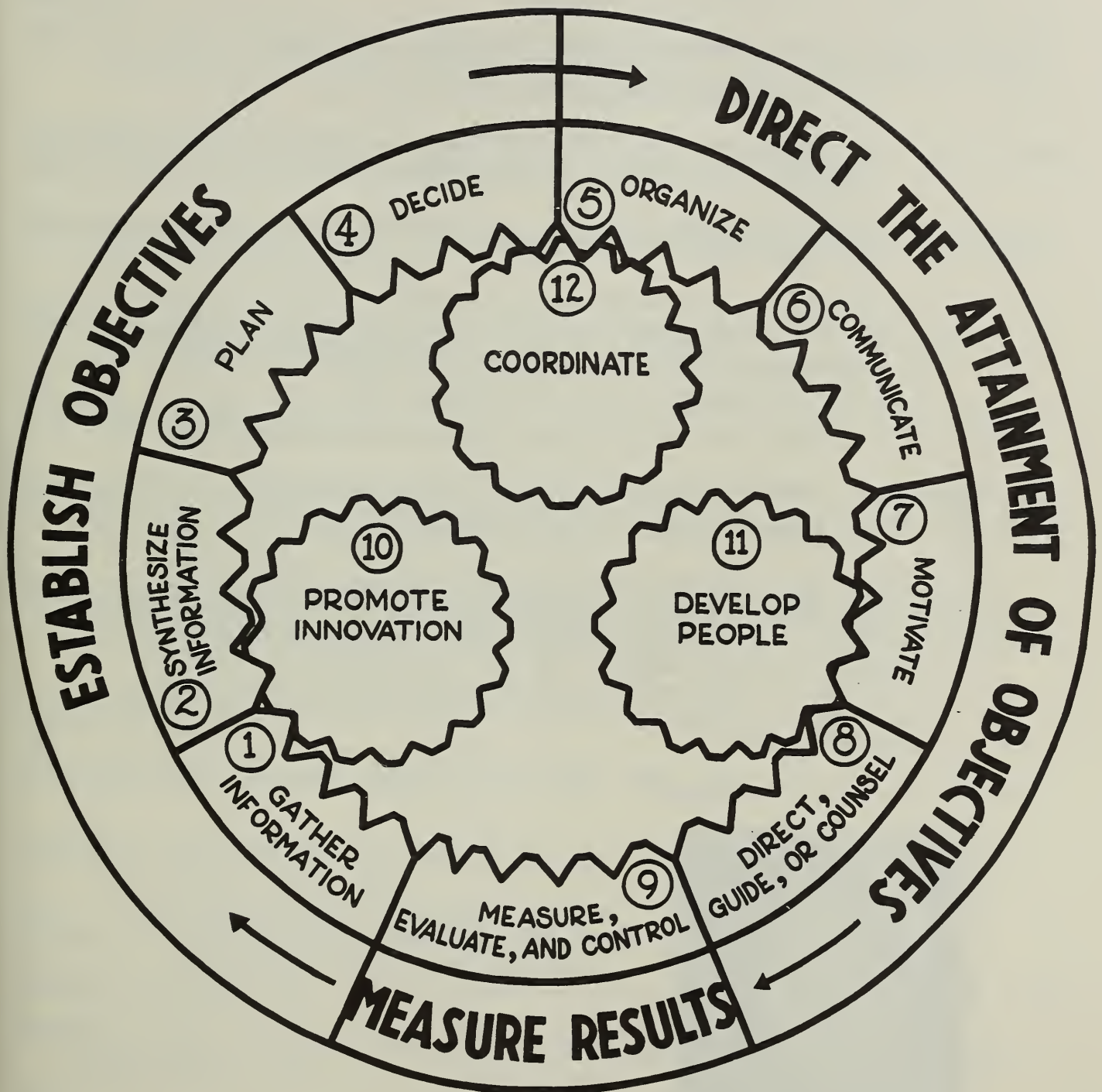
(Each participant has own statement--not recorded in Summary)

C. How to Plan and Conduct Workshops and Conferences (See References)

1. Use short course summary report.
2. Adopt teachings--translate basic principles to situation within own organization.
3. Assign staff to carry out parts of teaching job.
4. Make recommendations to higher authorities.

D. Exercise -- Case Study, "The Village Pump"

(This exercise included the elements of problem-solving or decision-making to be applied to local situation.)





## EVALUATION

### A. From what you observed and received:

#### 1. What have been the objectives of the Short Course?

(Composite statement developed by group):

- a. Objective analysis of the components of administrative practice (theory and principles in public administration; and their inter-relation).
- b. Sharing of experiences in order to promote improvements and solve problems.
- c. Showing merits and demerits of various systems of administration, based on a study of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.
- d. Determining additional materials and means available; to apply this information to the situation at home.
- e. Analyzing how to become more effective administrators.

#### 2. To what extent has this program met the objectives?

(An answer by one of the discussion groups):

"We have learned the theory and practical knowledge of public administration. This has helped us to broaden our outlook on general public administration and also made us capable of working in any new agency. We are more equipped to face any situation in administration, since we got the general idea of the necessary steps to be taken for the development of effective administration."

### B. Exit Evaluation Interview



Ann Lang Blaisdell, Evaluation Unit,  
Foreign Agricultural Service,  
U. S. Department of Agriculture

Interviewer

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- Cooperative Extension Administration. Report of Fifth National Administrative Workshop, Univ. of Wis., Apr. 16-26, 1956. Issued by the Nat'l Agr. Ext. Center for Advanced Study.
- Premises of Public Administration: Past and Emerging, by Wallace S. Sayre. From "Public Administration Review", Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 102-105.
- The Public Sector. From "The Theory of Economic Growth," by W. Arthur Lewis, 1955, pp. 392-396 (mimeo).
- The Rad Scales. From "Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership," by Ralph M. Stogdill and Carroll L. Shartle, Research Monograph No. 80, Ohio State Univ. Studies (mimeo).
- Rethinking Executive Development. Address by Roger W. Jones, Chairman, U. S. Civil Service Comm. at the International Conference of Public Personnel Association, San Francisco, 1959 (mimeo).
- Washington, D. C.:
- The Agricultural Research Center of the USDA. Agr. Inf. Bul. No. 189, USDA, 1958.
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The Research Program of USDA. Misc. Pub. No. 779, Agr. Res. Ser., USDA, 1958.

A Statement of Scope and Responsibility of the Cooperative Extension Service Today, 1958, FES, USDA.

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The U. S. Agricultural Attache: His History and His Work. FAS M-91, USDA, 1960.

U. S. Department of Agriculture: Organization and Function. USDA Inf. Bul., June, 1958.

What You Should Know About Administrative Communication. Bus. Inf. Bul. No. 20, Bur. of Bus. Res., Sch. of Bus., Ind. Univ., 1954.

The following books were suggested by Dr. W. R. Van Dersal, Asst. Adm. SCS, out of his teaching experience in the USDA Graduate School. A comprehensive list of general books and Journal articles and of selected references in the field of Public Administration was provided participants by Dr. J. W. Ryan at the University of Wisconsin.



Bureaucracy, A Challenge to Better Management, by J. M. Juran. Harper and Bros., New York, 1944.

Education and the Nature of Man, by Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey. Harper and Bros., New York, 1952.

How to Talk with People, by Irving J. Lee. Harper and Bros., New York, 1952.

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Men at Work, by Stuart Chase. Harcourt, Brace, and Co., New York, 1945.

The Practice of Management, by Peter F. Drucker. Harper and Bros., New York, 1954.

The Principles of Organization, by James D. Mooney. Harper and Bros., New York, Rev. Ed., 1947.

Psychology in Management, by Mason Haire. McGraw, Hill Book Company, New York, 1956.

Readings in Management. Ed. by Max D. Richards and William A. Nielander. Southwestern Publishing Co., Cincinnati, 1958. Contains 91 articles by different authors, organized in groups dealing with human relation, communications, organization, basic elements of management, and the like. Each article has a bibliography.

Selected Readings in Management. Ed. by Fremont A. Shull, Jr., R. D. Irwin, Inc., Homewood, Ill., 1958. Contains 33 articles by different authors. Generally similar to the preceding book, but very little duplication of selections.

## EXCERPTS

1. "Trends of a Decade in Administrative Practices," by Charles Asher, Public Administration Review, No. 10, 1950.

"The most conspicuous trend--recognition and understanding that the translation from purpose to program is the critical step in administration.....You get tired of seeing policy emerge from random minor decisions; you'd like to know where you're going before the case load overwhelms you."

2. "Premises of Public Administration: Past and Emerging," by Wallace S. Sayre, Public Administration Review, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 102-105.

"The premises around which the new consensus of public administration would seem to be forming are:

1. Public administration doctrine and practice is inescapably culture-bound. It is also bound to more specific values; to varying conceptions of the general public interest, to particular interest-group values, to the values of a specific administrative organization at a specific time.
  2. Public administration is one of the major political processes. The exercise of discretionary power, the making of value choices, is a characteristic and increasing function of administrators and bureaucrats; they are thus importantly engaged in politics.
  3. Organization theory in public administration is a problem in political strategy; a choice of organization structure is a choice in which interest of value will have preferred access or greater emphasis.
  4. Management techniques and processes have their costs as well as their benefits. Each new version has a high obsolescence rate.
  5. Public administration is ultimately a problem in political theory; a fundamental problem in a democracy is responsibility to popular control."
3. Are Engineers Good Administrators? Address by Elmo R. Morgan, Utah State Road Commissioner, 1959.

"The average engineer (or other technician) leaves the campus well fortified with fundamentals necessary to make of him a technical professional. He has been rather poorly exposed, however, to the liberal arts, humanities, and business courses that would make of him a better manager of men and provide a better understanding of the many problems of an administrator in the present-day world."

4. Rethinking Executive Development. Address by Roger W. Jones, Chairman, U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1959.

"Years ago, the ideal public executive combined a good classical education, good breeding, and good manners. This nineteenth century ideal, borrowed from European governments, is badly outmoded. Neither the cultured dilettante nor the jack-of-all trades of the American frontier has the knowledge,

skills, and abilities needed to do the job of the future. We need executives who have depth and breadth--who understand national and international political events, who know the program implications of automation, human relations, and organization theory, who know the basic issues facing civilization and the country, and who can blend these knowledges and techniques into a harmonious whole that will best serve the public interest.

The aim of all development of executives must be to give its recipients a full appetite for the three imperatives of executive success: rejection of complacency in every form--about Government, about the job, about his own ability; acceptance of responsibility in proper degree; willingness to act and take the consequences of his actions."

5. Functions of the Executive, by Chester Barnard, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1951.

"In education for executives there is need for: (a) broad interests and wide imagination and understanding; (b) superior intellectual capacities; (c) understanding in the field of human relations; (d) persuasion in human affairs; and (e) understanding what constitutes rational behavior."

6. A Philosophy of Administration, by Marshall Edward Dimock, Harper Brothers, New York, 1959.

"This book has a thesis.....it is that administration is more than learned responses, well-chosen techniques, a bundle of tricks. It is not even a science and never ought to become a hard and fast method. It is more than an art. It is philosophy."

The author sees the usual aspects of administration--organization, personnel, planning, budgets, procedures, direction, supervision, control, and public relations--as important but secondary considerations after the larger problems of cultural environment, economics and human relations are taken care of.

7. Administrative Behavior, by Herbert A. Simon, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1957.

"Decision-making is at the heart of administration . . . . It is a fatal defect of the current principles of administration that, like proverbs, they occur in parts. For almost every principle one can find an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. . . . .

The central theme around which the analysis has been developed is that organization behavior is a complex network of decisional processes, all pointed toward their influence upon the behaviors of the operatives.....The anatomy of the organization is to be found in the distribution and allocation of decision-making functions. The physiology of the organization is to be found in the processes whereby the organizations influences the decisions of each of its members--supplying these decisions with their premises.

Our study has not led us to any definitive administrative principles. It has, however, provided us with a framework for the set of factors that must



be weighed in arriving at any valid proposal for administrative organization.....

No step in the administrative process is more generally ignored, or more poorly performed, than the task of communicating decisions. All too often, plans are "ordered" into effect without any consideration of the manner in which they can be brought to influence the behavior of the individual members of the group. Failures in communication result whenever it is forgotten that the behavior of individuals is the tool with which organization achieves its purpose."

8. "Analysis of the Process of Decision Making," by James L. McCamy, Public Administration Review, Winter, 1947.

"The reaching of a decision is the core of administration; all the other attributes of the administrative process being dependent on, interwoven with, and existent for the making of decisions.....

If we can build reliable evidence of what actually takes place in the reaching of administrative decisions, we shall be able not only to tell others what happens but also to reach better informed conclusions on such questions as the nature of planning and its execution, the extent of executive discretion in a responsible government, or the consequences of turnover in administrative personnel.....We need a framework for analysis of decision making--to agree on concept and language to describe decision making (the complex of human association, events, and words leading to and including, any conclusion for a program of policy or operations.)

9. Integrated Auditing, by Disney W. Peloubet and Herbert Heaton, Ronald Press Co., 1958.

"Controls may be viewed in the negative sense of restriction and restraint, but they have lasting value only in the positive sense of directing effort toward worthwhile objectives. Effort is directed by defining and measuring objectives and by measuring and appraising performance in their achievement. The essence of controls thus lies in definition and in the use of measurements. The effectiveness of controls lies in the acceptability of the objectives and the constructive use of measurements for self-direction..... Control always involves compliance with a pattern of objectives, measurements, and methods. It is not, however, a pattern imposed by a team or subservient individual. Instead, it must be a universal pattern which benefits each integrated part as well as the whole. Here the measure of degree enters to give those with the greatest understanding, the greatest opportunity to serve and benefit. This recognition and embracing of the common beneficial pattern is basic in religious teaching, in democracy, and in business. While government and business controls often appear to be set up and administered with dictated procedure and close discipline, their success is in direct proportion to the extent to which they are seen to conform with a common beneficial pattern."





